DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 187 021 EA 012 698

TITLE Basic Skills, 1979. Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities of the Committee on Labor and Human Resources. United States Senate, Ninety-Sixth Congress. First Session on Examination of Basic Skills Achievement Designed to Assist Both States and Local School Districts to Expand and Improve Their Programs in Basic Skills in the Elementary and Secondary Grades.

INSTITUTION Congress of the U.S., Washington, D.C. Senate Subcommittee on Labor and Human Resources.

PUB DATE 79

NOTE 1,193p.; Not available in paper copy due to marginal legibility of original document.

EDRS PRICE MF09 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.

DESCRIPTORS Academic Achievement; Achievement Tests; *Basic Skills; *Competency Based Education; *Educational Legislation; Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; *Hearings; *Reading Achievement

IDENTIFIERS *Boston Public Schools MA; *Congress 96th; Indiana; Massachusetts

ABSTRACT

This book is a collection of congressional hearings that examine basic skills achievement in schools across the country. The purpose of the hearings was to assist both local school districts and states to expand and improve their programs in basic skills in the elementary and secondary grades. The witnesses' testimony is presented chronologically followed by articles and publications related to the topic. Examples of other information included are policy statements and regulations from Massachusetts and a reading achievement study in Indiana. (Author/LD)

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BASIC SKILLS, 1979

HEARINGS

BEFORE THE

SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND HUMANITIES

OF THE

COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES UNITED STATES SENATE

NINETY-SIXTH CONGRESS

FIRST SESSION

ON

EXAMINATION OF BASIC SKILLS ACHIEVEMENT DESIGNED TO ASSIST BOTH STATES AND LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS TO EXPAND AND IMPROVE THEIR PROGRAMS IN BASIC SKILLS IN THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY GRADES

WASHINGTON, D.C.
FEBRUARY 13; MARCH 15 AND 28; MAY 22; JUNE 19; AND JULY 24, 1979

FLORISSANT, MO.
MARCH 12, 1979

BOSTON, MASS.
APRIL 3, 1979

CHICAGO, ILL.
APRIL 9, 1979

NEWPORT, R.I.
SEPTEMBER 29, 1979

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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Printed for the use of the Committee on Labor and Human Resources

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
46-431 O WASHINGTON : 1979

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BASIC SKILLS, 1979

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ART AND THE HUMANITIES
OF THE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Washington, D.C.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 9:30 a.m., in room 4232, Dirksen Senate Office Building, Senator Thomas F. Eagleton, presiding pro tempore.

Senator EAGLETON. Good morning, ladies and gentlemen.

The Senate Subcommittee on Education of the Senate Human Resources Committee is now in session.

I am greatly indebted to my colleague and chairman of the Education Subcommittee, Senator Pell of Rhode Island, for giving me the opportunity to hold what I consider to be the most important set of hearings I have conducted in my years as a U.S. Senator.

Simply put, nothing, in my view, is more closely tied to the health and strength of this democracy than the kind of education it is providing for its growing children. And the heart of that education—the essential building blocks of education—is reading, writing, and computation skills. By anyone's definition, these are the basic skills of knowledge.

Yet, by many indications, both anecdotal and statistical, these very essential skills are deteriorating.

The growing public concern about basic skills achievement led the 95th Congress to authorize a new basic skills program as part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Amendments of 1978, designed to assist both States and local school districts to expand and improve their programs in basic skills in the elementary and secondary grades.

The focus of today's hearing, and other hearings planned for later this spring, will be to define the most appropriate assistance which the Federal Government can provide to educators.

In order to have real impact for a relatively modest sum of money, we must have a clear understanding of the nature and extent of the problems, the various approaches across the country which demonstrate excellence in basic skills achievement, and their applicability to other situations.

I am not coming into these hearings with any chips on my shoulder against or for any particular view about the state of education beyond one that I trust we all have; namely, that education will always need the care and attention of those who want to help it get better and better.

I have no piece of legislation in mind to introduce as a result of these hearings, nor do I have any illusion that there is a quick fix to solve all problems. I have no disposition to see things as either better or worse than indeed they may be.

I do think we are having hearings at a most fortuitous time in the evolution of public education in this country. Along with vigilant concern for equality of opportunity, we are also increasingly focusing on the quality of education. Quality is the new frontier, and the quality of basic skills teaching and learning is what these hearings are all about.

I will count these hearings a success if they can give to the American people and the Congress a clear and balanced view of the current situation in basic skills achievement in our schools and if they provide practical wisdom and operational guidance for those who will administer the new Basic Skill title of the 1978 Amendments of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

For me, personally, the inclusion of that special section on reading, writing, and computing—the first time all three skills have been addressed in education legislation by Congress—represents a very satisfying, indeed, a mighty proud achievement. I look forward to helping to maximize its effectiveness in any way I can through these hearings.

We have three witnesses. The first of the three will be Mr. Paul Copperman, who is the author of a recent book entitled "The Literacy Hoax," and who is keenly interested in matters relating to reading and writing skills.

Mr. Copperman, we are glad to have you with us. You came quite a long way from sunny California. We appreciate your taking the time to be with us.

STATEMENT OF PAUL COPPERMAN, AUTHOR OF "THE LITERACY HOAX: THE DECLINE OF READING, WRITING, AND LEARNING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND WHAT WE CAN DO ABOUT IT"

Mr. COPPERMAN. First, I would like to thank you personally for inviting me. I consider it a real honor to have been invited to speak here, and I hope that my testimony will provide some kind of perspective, certainly the perspective I have about the problems in basic skills, which I think are much more severe than most people realize.

I would like to read my testimony, if I may.

The American public schools are perpetrating a massive hoax on our schoolchildren and their parents. The academic achievement of late elementary and secondary students has declined every year for 15 years.

The average eighth grade student today reads, writes, and computes only as well as the average sixth or seventh grade student in the early 1960's. Yet, this same period has witnessed an equally sharp and consistent increase in the grades awarded these students.

This lowering of educational standards has two causes: First, a permissive educational ideology now dominates educational practice in our public schools; second, our public schools have been subjected to an enormous amount of bureaucratic and judicial in-

terference. As a result, hundreds of thousands of functionally incompetent or only marginally competent young people are being passed through the public schools with average or above-average grades. These children and their parents are victims of what I have called "the literacy hoax."

The historical fact of educational and economic progress is part of our American heritage; each generation of Americans has outstripped its parents in education, in literacy, and in economic attainment. For the first time in the history of our country, the educational skills of one generation will not surpass, will not equal, will not even approach, those of their parents. Progress has become decline.

An historical profile of academic achievement in the United States shows gradual improvement from the first part of this century to the mid-1950's, amounting to an average gain of 5 months to a year when comparing the academic achievement of students with equal amounts of schooling.

In the decade following sputnik, academic achievement leaped ahead, recording average gains ranging up to a year. Since the years 1963–1965, when educational skills, on average, peaked in this country, achievement has been dropping at the rate of approximately 1 month per year.

Only about a quarter of the students who graduate from high school next June will function at the average level recorded in 1963. The literacy skills of young people in this society have deteriorated to the level recorded in the late 1940's and early 1950's.

So what?

Well, it takes a seventh-grade reading level to hold a job as a cook, an eighth grade level to make it as a mechanic, and a ninth to tenth grade level to function adequately as a supply clerk.

Between 10 and 20 percent of the students who graduate this June will not be able to function at any of these levels, and another 30 to 40 percent will function so marginally that occupational success will not be assured.

Senator EAGLETON. You said between 10 and 20 percent who graduate this June will not be able to function at any of these levels.

Why is that range so enormous, 10 to 20? Why is it so speculative?

Mr. COPPERMAN. There are a half dozen studies with which I am familiar which indicate levels between 10 and 20 percent. The national assessment of education progress has pegged it for white students at 13 percent and for black students at around 25 percent. That is the center.

Senator EAGLETON. All right.

Mr. COPPERMAN. The levels of functional illiteracy run about two and a half times higher among the unemployed than the employed—36 versus 15 percent—three times higher among minority adults than white adults—50 versus 16 percent—five times greater among adults earning less than $5,000 per year than adults earning over $15,000—40 versus 8 percent—and six times greater among juvenile delinquents than among high school students at large—85 versus 15 percent. These figures are approximate. They are pretty close.

So the literacy decline of the past 15 years will have tragic economic consequences, at least, for many of its victims. With illiteracy and marginal literacy rates soaring to levels last recorded 25 to 35 years ago, American society will be burdened with the support of an increasing and significant number of dysfunctional and marginally functional citizens.

What caused the decline? A lack of money? Hardly.

During the past 15 years, our national education budget more than quadrupled, growing from $36 billion in 1964 to over $150 billion this year. That is bigger than the defense budget and twice as big as the domestic automobile or steel industries. In fact, we spend as much on education as the rest of the world combined.

What, then? A lack of teaching?

The principal cause of the deterioration in the reading, writing, and math skills of America's students is a reduction in the quality and quantity of the education our schools are providing. In the domain of academic achievement, students tend to learn what they are taught. Conversely, in the same domain, students tend not to learn what they are not taught. Students are learning less today because they are being taught less.

Fifteen years ago, the average high school student took 4 years of English. Today, he takes less than 3 years.

In the English classes he does take, he is assigned about half the reading and writing of students a generation ago. He also takes 35 percent less world history, 35 percent less government and civics, 30 percent less geography, and 20 percent less science and math.

Even these figures underestimate the reduction in the academic courseload of the average student. Many traditional and rigorous courses have been replaced with fare best described as educational entertainment. Courses in ethnic literature are replacing English composition; courses in current events are replacing world history. In these courses, the amount of work assigned and the standard to which it is held are considerably lower than in the courses they replace.

Two contrasting examples highlight this radical reduction in standards.

Most textbooks used at the late elementary and secondary levels have been rewritten in the past 10 years with a sharply reduced reading level. For example, most 11th grade American history textbooks are written at a 9th grade level, with vocabulary and sentence structure 1 to 4 years lower than comparable textbooks used a generation ago. At the same time, grades are skyrocketing. The average grade awarded to American students today is the B; C now means below average.

This curricular deterioration is a manifestation of a deeper malady, the breakdown of authority relations in education. The core of the educational process is an authority relationship between adults and children, which consists of a training and nurturing function on the part of the adult, and a learning function on the part of the child.

Teachers and school officials have two principal responsibilities. They must develop a meaningful curriculum, whose mastery will enable a young person to become an autonomously functioning

member of society, and they must get children to master this curriculum.

This model of natural authority as the core relationship in education clashes violently with the contemporary concept that teachers and students should have a democratic relationship.

Current educational philosophy holds that children should be given a great deal of freedom in choosing what, how, and even whether they study.

An externally imposed curriculum with rigorous work demands and high performance standards is held to dampen a child's innate curiosity and creativity. The work ethic is held to be a relic of a bygone era, to be replaced with the concept of self-directed play.

The central flaw in the current model of educational process is that children are not in a position to make rational choices about what or how they will study. The dependent state of childhood, in which young people are sheltered from the world and the consequences of their actions in it, is a state of development in which the exercise of this kind of responsibility and independence is normally precluded.

It is the job of teachers and school officials to channel the young person's effort in socially and personally productive ways. When educators talk about freedom and democracy in the schools, they are usually attempting to camouflage the abdication of their own authority and responsibility. Autonomy, after all, is not something that can be given. Autonomy must be acquired.

This major shift in educational philosophy and practice is, however, only part of the explanation for the breakdown in authority relations in our public schools. If our schoolteachers and administrators have been committing educational suicide, they have been helped over the brink by an overwhelming amount of legal and bureaucratic interference, most of which emanates from Washington.

A school principal is afraid to back up a teacher in a dispute with a problem student because the Supreme Court has placed severe restraints on his disciplinary authority.

Another principal is afraid to reprimand a lazy teacher who happens to be a member of a minority group because his district is desperately trying to fulfill HEW's affirmative action criteria.

A high school English teacher becomes completely demoralized because the skills of the students in her class range from the first grade level to the college level; HEW forced her school to abandon ability grouping. A third grade teacher has stopped trying to teach reading, because the compensatory education programs used at her school have changed every year.

These examples, and hundreds more that could be presented by any competent administrator in a district receiving a significant amount of Federal funds, point up the culpability of the Federal Government in the deterioration of educational authority. Following are just a few more examples that I turned up during my research:

(1) The Supreme Court's decision mandating bilingual education programs;

(2) U.S. district court's decisions forcing school districts to bus large numbers of students against the wishes of the overwhelming majority of community residents and local school officials;

(3) The Federal regulations which prevent a school district from using Federal compensatory education money to pay the salary of a regular classroom teacher;

(4) The Federal regulations which force school districts to hire large numbers of community residents to work in the school;

(5) The Federal regulations which require school administrators to consult with multiple advisory groups before setting policy;

(6) The Federal regulations which restrict student eligibility for participation in federally funded compensatory education programs;

(7) The Federal regulations which force school districts to hire teachers on a racial basis, assign them to schools on a racial basis, and promote administrators on a racial basis;

(8) Direct and indirect Federal funding of organizations which actively subvert the authority of local schools.

There is a natural chain of authority in our public schools. Authority flows from parents in the community, through school boards, through the superintendent, through the school principals, to the classroom teacher.

The teacher's classroom authority is delegated parental authority. Only the proper exercise of that authority permits the teacher to be effective.

The past 15 years has witnessed two movements which have acted to interfere with that flow of authority: First, a permissive educational ideology which urges teachers and school officials to replace educational authority with educational democracy; second, legal and bureaucratic interference emanating from Washington.

The diminution of the authority of parent, teacher, and school has had disastrous consequences for our young people. Teachers and school officials are demoralized. Parents are frustrated and alienated. Students' resistance to educational authority has received enormous reinforcement. The school curriculum has degenerated. And the academic skills of our public school students are in a 15-year tailspin.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

(1) Congress should enact legislation protecting the autonomy and authority of local schools against the incursion of the judiciary, the Federal educational bureaucracy, the Federal civil rights bureaucracy, and other agencies of the Federal executive.

This legislation should express the mood of the Congress that the authority and autonomy of local schools must be enhanced if they are to successfully fulfill their mission of educating America's schoolchildren to a functional level of literacy. I suggest we call this legislation the Magna Carta for Elementary and Secondary Education.

Congress should review all past, current, and future legislation affecting education from the perspective of its impact on the authority and autonomy of local schools. Congress should likewise direct all appropriate agencies of the Federal executive to scruti-

nize those of its regulations which affect elementary education. Congress should also create a mechanism through which local school districts could report damaging bureaucratic or judicial interference in their operations.

Finally, we need to recognize that our institutions of postsecondary education have consistently lowered their standards during the past 15 years, with a consequent negative impact on educational standards at our elementary and secondary schools. Analogous causes imply analogous recommendations; thus, I endorse Louis Bender's recommendations in his book, "Federal Regulation and Higher Education."

(2) Congress should eliminate or greatly reduce its categorical aid programs. The basic unit of elementary and secondary education is the classroom at the local school—one teacher working with a group of students.

Virtually all categorical aid programs either interfere with the effective operation of that unit or attempt to bypass it altogether. These programs are ineffective, and tend to weaken the local educational effort. I specifically recommend the elimination of titles 1 and 7 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1964.

The money saved by the elimination of these categorical aid programs should be returned to local school districts with no strings attached whatsoever.

(3) Congress should carefully scrutinize proposed legislation establishing a Department of Education from the perspective discussed above.

Under existing legislation and bureaucratic regulations, there is an inherent conflict between the Federal and local educational efforts. I am convinced that the proposed Department will be, as its sponsors suggest, much more efficient than the current Federal educational bureaucracy. A more efficient bureaucracy acting counterproductively to our local schools will not, however, serve the needs of America's schoolchildren. Until we alter the direction of the Federal educational effort, I urge a no vote on the proposed Department of Education.

(4) I recommend the passage of the Packwood-Moynihan, Burke-Frenzel tuition tax credit bill. There are two ways in which passage of this bill will increase the academic achievement of America's students, one direct, the other indirect.

First, it will assist families to enroll their children in private schools, and in so doing, will help private schools to survive.

My research demonstrates quite unequivocally that private schools are doing a better job than public schools at teaching basic academic skills and subject matter. Second, the bill will increase the competition between public and private schools, encouraging both sectors to develop more effective educational programs.

I would like to thank the committee and especially Senator Eagleton for this opportunity to testify on behalf of America's schoolchildren.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Copperman. I think it might be useful if we put your qualifications and credentials in the record. Most witnesses usually spend the whole first page describing who they are.

Would you give us a little of your background, the institute you head in California, and how you got into the question of reading in the first place?

Mr. COPPERMAN. I will be happy to.

I have an undergraduate degree in mathematics from the University of California, Berkeley; graduate degree and masters degree in education.

The institute is called the Institute of Reading Development, with six offices in California; and we offer programs at the junior high school level, high school level, college level, and professional level.

At the institute, we have remedial reading programs which we conduct for school districts. These are programs designed to teach a love of reading and basic academic competency to junior high school students.

A number of universities in California actually subcontract with my firm when they administer Federal funds designed to increase the reading skills of young people. For example, we have a contract with the University of California at Berkeley to teach basic reading skills to disadvantaged, black youngsters from the Oakland ghetto. We contract with the University of California, Santa Cruz, to teach basic reading skills to children of migrant farm laborers.

We do a lot of work teaching basic reading skills to university students. Many of these are minority students. These are often administered through Federal programs such as educational opportunity programs.

I am personally responsible for developing these reading programs in the early 1970's, and I personally train our teachers and administer the programs.

I am in the schools and in the universities and in the classrooms quite a bit.

Senator EAGLETON. On what is the fourth page of your testimony at the bottom, you say, "These examples, and hundreds more that could be presented by any competent administrator in a district receiving a significant amount of Federal funds, point at the culpability of the Federal Government in the deterioration of educational authority."

Following on just a few more examples that I turned up in my research. Then you give about eight examples. I take it since most of these eight examples in point of time came after *Brown* v. *Board of Education*, the landmark decision on school desegregation in 1954, that you, although without saying so, seem to be pointing to the *Brown* case as the cause of the deterioration which you describe.

Is that fair conclusion of your testimony?

Mr. COPPERMAN. No; I do not think so. I am young enough so that Brown is part of my childhood, something which I have always accepted rather like one accepts certain historical facts. All the examples I cite have occurred during my professional career or at least during my university education. I have never talked to a school administrator at the local level who has disputed the decision which was rendered in the *Brown* v. *Board of Education*. I really feel that my position here is somewhat as an advocate of people who oftentimes do not have a chance to testify.

I had the opportunity last week to read several thousand pages of testimony on the Packwood-Moynihan bill, and on the proposed Department of Education, and I did not see very many local school teachers or principals or even local administrators.

I have never heard one of those gentlemen complain about *Brown* or complain about basic constitutional obligations to desegregate schools. What I have heard is a great deal of anguish from local school people about the overregulation and the bureaucratic interference and judicial interference with their operation.

There seems to be a feeling in Washington that the local school administrators are stupid and venal, and that we must establish entire bureaucracies to protect America's school children against them. I think that perspective is simply incorrect.

My experience, working with local school people, is that they are struggling desperately to do a job and they feel like their hands are tied.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, for example, item No. 2 in your list reads, "U.S. District Court's decisions forcing school districts to bus large numbers of students against the wishes of the overwhelming majority of community residents and local school officials."

The district courts, when they enter their decrees, are doing so pursuant to the Supreme Court decision spelling out the effects of the equal protection clause of the Constitution. What would you have the district courts do, considering the body of case law that has come from the Supreme Court?

Mr. COPPERMAN. Well, I have looked at a number of those decisions and I have also looked at the testimony which caused the courts to make those decisions.

It is my feeling that most of those decisions were based on social science testimony which attempted to demonstrate that if we bus large numbers of youngsters in an urban school district, this would have positive effects on the academic achievement of minority youngsters, and it would also reduce the racial prejudice of all of the students in a school district. That was the substance of the testimony which caused the courts to render their decisions.

This testimony was based on James Coleman's study in 1965, and was also based on research by Kenneth Clark back in the 1950's, in which the hypothesized effects of busing were that it would increase academic achievement and reduce racial prejudice.

The original busing decisions came in the late 1960's and very early 1970's, when, of course, we did not know what effects busing would have.

Since the very early busing decisions, we have developed a body of research which indicates what does happen when you bus large numbers of children. We do not know what happens in every case, but we can make predictions from what has happened in the several dozen cases I have read about.

First off, there seems to be no reduction in racial prejudice of the students. As a matter of fact, most studies indicate the opposite has happened.

Second, very, very few studies indicate positive effects on the academic achievement of black children. Basically, there seems to be no effect on the academic achievement of any of the children. However, there is one very measurable effect. The year that you

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institute busing you get an increase of about 400 percent in the number of white students who are yanked out of that school district by their parents.

For example, take Los Angeles.

This year is the first year of forced busing in the Los Angeles schools. This year alone, 15 percent of the white students in Los Angeles are being yanked out of those schools by their parents and put either into private schools or into suburban schools.

The busing decisions seem to have produced two principal effects. I have done a lot of traveling and talked to PTA's, parent groups and school administrators all over the country. One effect seems to be to drive the middle class, especially the white middle class, out of big-city schools.

The other effect is another manifestation of the same thing; and very, very dangerous for public education in this country. These busing decisions are driving a wedge, as most of these things that I have cited are, it is driving a wedge between parents and their schools.

We do not have a European system of education here. I am a little familiar—one of your staff members was telling me yesterday—you personally attended school board meetings with your father when you were a youngster. You, probably better than anybody in this room, know that education in this country is a community endeavor. The school board is the principal agency in our system of education for creating an educational structure which fulfills the wishes of parents in a community.

Historically, in this country, certainly up to the early 1960's, parents felt that the schools were in fact representing them; that school policy was a fulfillment of their wishes. What busing decisions have done, what many, many of these regulations and other acts of judicial and bureaucratic interference have done, is to create an environment in our public schools where parents no longer feel that their schools are responsive to their wishes, to their needs, to their desires. It has created a real barrier, a real gap, so that you have a great deal of alienation on the part of parents.

You have parents turning away from public schools for the first time in the history of this country.

I do not think it is coincidental that for the first time in the history of this country you have a deterioration in basic academic achievement.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you go so far as to recommend a constitutional amendment reinstituting *Plessy* v. *Ferguson*, separate but equal?

Mr. COPPERMAN. No; of course not. I am not opposed to *Brown* at all, nor have I met anybody at the local level in my travels or research who is in favor of separate but equal, where the schools are permitted to segregate based on race. I think that the law and the schools should be color blind.

What I am opposed to is this feeling which seems to infuse the civil rights bureaucracy in Washington, and indeed the entire Federal educational effort, that local school people, if given any rope whatsoever, are going to damage children, are going to create

segregation at every opportunity. I simply do not think that is a realistic view.

I also think that the view is quite self-serving.

I think the legislative intent of our educational legislation is completely meritorious, and without question represents a major step in the development of democracy in this country.

But I think the way the legislative intent has been manifested in regulations has served the interests of bureaucrats and lawyers who find employment by suing local school districts.

So you have auditors and lawyers coming into a local school district telling local school officials to change the way they are doing something for example, assigning teachers to schools. They create tremendous chaos by making local school officials spend an inordinate amount of time and energy worrying about what the auditor is going to say, worrying about the possibility of a lawsuit or cut off funds, worrying about local organizations suing the school because they are not complying with regulations. This takes a lot of time and energy, and it prevents local school people from doing their jobs.

The biggest problem in Federal educational legislation is that it does not accept the primacy of the local school effort. It creates a parasitic, secondary bureaucracy to which local school people must answer. An effective organization needs a normal flow of authority and control.

For example, I have a contract with the University of California at Berkeley to teach young people their basic skills. I am given the authority to carry out that contract. I tell my teachers what to do to be effective.

If my teachers not only had to answer to me but also had to answer to somebody else about the way they were doing their job, they would not be as effective. This is terribly damaging.

I think if I can say anything which will be heard here, I would like to make the point that the local people, the teacher in the classroom, the site principal, the superintendent, do have the interests of children at heart. Federal legislation and Federal money should enable them to do their job, not interfere with them as they attempt to do their job.

Senator EAGLETON. When I was in college in the late 1940's, there was a resurgence of interest in such authors as F. Scott Fitzgerald, who wrote in and about the 1920's. I read a little Fitzgerald and read about the 1920's and thought, my Lord, what an intriguing time; I wish I had lived back in the wonderful, blissful 1920's. I discussed it one time with my father, and he said the 1920's were not all that wonderful and not all that blissful.

Now, with that commentary, your testimony seeks to leave the impression that if we would only go back to the good old days, everything, in terms of basic skills, would work themselves out.

My question to you is this: Are we sure that the good old days were all that good? That is, is not our degree of sophisticated testing today more developed into an art form than perhaps it was in the 1930's and 1940's or even into the 1950's? That is, are we certain that basic achievement skills were all that good back then, and all that poor here and now?

Mr. COPPERMAN. Well, basic skills today are better than they were in the 1940's, but they are not better than they were in the late 1950's and early 1960's. Educational testing has gotten much better and much more accurate. I do not want to burden you with citing the 50 or so studies that I had to look at very carefully, but I simply do not think at this point that there is any possibility of quarreling with the basic findings of my research. If you look at broad population groups, for example, the population of 17-year-old youngsters in the 1930's, it had higher levels of achievement than comparable youngsters in 1920, 1940 was better than 1930, 1950 was better than 1940, and 1960 was better than 1950.

But this steady improvement stopped in the early 1960's. There is just too much evidence of a decline. Until about 1976, representatives of the Big Six educational lobbies, representatives of what one might call the educational establishment, were attempting to deny that this decline had in fact occurred. .

In the last 2 years, that denial has pretty much faded away. Very few authorities today would dispute a decline, not a decline since the 1920's, not a decline since the 1940's, but, yes, there has been a decline since the early 1960's. I wish it were not so, but I am afraid it is so.

What most people do not recognize is that the decline is much more pronounced among average-ability students, above-average ability students more than among below-average ability students. That fact has some very dangerous implications for the future of this country.

Senator EAGLETON. I take it, you would identify, the culprit of that decline as the Federal Government, presumably with the enactment of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act?

Mr. COPPERMAN. No; I spent more time talking about the Federal contribution here than I really think is warranted by its responsibility. I would not say it is principally responsible. I am in Washington, and for the first time in my life I have an opportunity to talk to somebody who may be able to provide some leadership at the national level, so I am talking about what you can do or Congress can do.

I actually think that there are two fundamental causes of the deterioration in basic skills. One is a flow of authority away from the local school people, away from the school teacher, away from the principal, away from the superintendent, a usurpation of authority by the judiciary, especially, but also by the Federal educational bureaucracy.

But if I had to apportion out blame, I would probably give that less than 50 percent of the blame. The other 50 to 60 percent belongs to the permissive or liberal educational philosophy which has assumed dominance in public education in the last 20 years.

The easiest way to indicate that is simply the grading practices. When a youngster gets a B today, it is the equivalent of little better than a C when you were in school or when I was in school. The grading practices are permissive, as is the practice of permitting youngsters at the secondary level to choose their classes and even choose their teachers. This practice has resulted in approximately a 30 percent decline in the average number of hours of instruction at the secondary level nationwide.

Very important research done by Wiley at the University of Chicago, and another study called the beginning teacher evaluation study out of Sacramento, indicate that what makes a difference in education is the amount of time the youngster is exposed to instructional efforts by the teacher.

Yet, just in the last generation, there has been an approximate 30-percent decline in the average number of hours of instruction that youngsters are getting in academic courses at the high school level. The lowering of standards at the university level is also partially responsible.

Let me tell you a story from New York City. In 1970, the City University of New York (CUNY), which in the late 1960's had enormous prestige as an academic institution—probably the third ranking State university system in the country, after California and Michigan—abolished all of its specific course requirements for entry. In other words, one did not need 4 years of English or 3 years of history in order to gain admission. One could come in as long as one was of age.

The elementary and secondary schools in New York City watched CUNY for a couple of years to see whether or not they really were permitting youngsters to come in without any specific course work.

In 1973, New York City abolished their academic diploma. New York City used to have a two-tier diploma system; they had an academic and a general diploma.

The academic diploma required—I cannot remember the exact specifics—several years of English, science, foreign language, et cetera. The general diploma did not.

They abolished the academic diploma in 1973, because it no longer had functional utility within the structure of New York City education. The academic diploma no longer provided an advantage over the general diploma as regards admissions to CUNY.

Between 1973 and 1978, just 5 years, there was a significant decline in the average number of hours of instruction that youngsters were taking in the academic areas. The New York Times, reported a 10 to 15 percent decline in the average number of academic classes taken by students in those 5 years. This occurred in almost all the high schools in the city. When you lower standards at the university level, it has a rubber band effect at the lower level.

There has been increasing enrollment in what I call entertainment classes, classes which were created to motivate students, like sports literature, black literature, revolutionary literature, science fiction, and mystery novels.

Since the goal of these classes was to motivate students, teachers do not assign nearly as much writing and reading. A study out of Massachusetts indicates that when a school has heavy enrollment in these courses, the SAT scores in that school go down very sharply; whereas, when you do not have heavy enrollment in those kinds of courses, the SAT scores do not go down. The National Association of Secondary School Principals came to the identical finding in a national study.

Giving youngsters the kind of freedom we give today, creates a democratic structure. The democratic model is applied to schooling;

government by the consent of the governed becomes education by the consent of the children. This is quite destructive to their long-term interests.

Children will take the easy way out if you permit them. This permissive tendency in public education, I think, is even more destructive than actions taken by the Federal Government, to reduce the authority and autonomy of local school people.

Senator EAGLETON. In essence, you are recommending that we change the thrust of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as originally enacted in 1965, with its various changes every 2 or 3 years thereafter, and get away from the categorical programs, and even categorical programs for basic skills. We should embark upon sort of a general revenue sharing, with the Government—the Federal Government—giving sort of unfettered cash to the local school districts to do that which they see fit to do? Is that basically the thrust of your recommendation?

Mr. COPPERMAN. I think that would be far better than what the Federal Government is doing today. I would like to see it go one step further and have Congress pass a resolution expressing the sentiment of the Congress that the authority and autonomy of the local schools is essential to the development and teaching of basic skills.

The local schools are not the enemy. They are, in fact, the solution. I am in schools quite a bit. I talk to local school people, and they feel like they do not get support. They feel like people distrust them. As a matter of fact, they feel stabbed in the back. They are getting terribly demoralized.

Many of our best teachers are fleeing public schools. They are getting out. This is a very dangerous situation.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, I read from time to time—and you have stated it both in your prepared testimony and in your responses to some of my questions—about some of the exotic, bizarre courses, things that are called frills. Is not much of that a bit exaggerated?

So as to focus on this directly, let me read an excerpt to you from a very interesting article that was in the January 23, 1979, edition of the New York Times. It is entitled "About Education," and it is subcaptioned "Frills in the Schools Are Often Basic."

Here are just a couple of sentences from this article, by Fred Hechinger.

> What may look like a frill to cost-efficiency experts may seem an important part of the school environment to children and their parents. If the basic skill, one without such frills and art, music, after-school activities, books and personal instructions, becomes the standard pattern, particularly in financially-pressed cities, the city schools will soon again become poor schools as they were called before the advent of universal access to public education.

Mr. COPPERMAN. I am completely in favor of art education, music education, and high school athletics. When I look at comparative studies in education, comparing. For example, Soviet education with American education, I feel very strongly that our society is abrogating its responsibility to young people by not providing them with all sorts of opportunities for positive kinds of activities.

When I talk about entertainment-type courses, I am talking about the fact that at the high school level, current events, sociolo-

gy, and psychology, seem to be replacing world history as a basic course.

I teach a large number of high school and college students. The majority of high school students that I teach do not know who we fought against in World War II. I am not exaggerating. The overwhelming majority of college students that I teach do not know what happened at the Bay of Pigs.

The words "Bay of Pigs" means very little to them. I would say less than 10 percent could tell you what happened at Munich.

I consider world history to be a basic course. I do not consider sociology, or ethnic studies, or current events, or psychology at the high school level to be basic courses.

When I talk about entertainment courses, that is what I am talking about. I am not talking about music and art. I consider music and art to be basic courses, personally, and I feel like the opportunity to take music and art enriches the educational experience of anybody who has that opportunity.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you think courses in psychology and sociology are frills?

Mr. COPPERMAN. Yes, I do, at the high school level.

Senator EAGLETON. Not at the college level?

Mr. COPPERMAN. Not at the college level. There are only so many hours in a day. It is the responsibility of our public schools to make sure that our youngsters can exercise their citizenship responsibilities. I do not see how one can vote for a President of the United States or for a U.S. Senator if one does not know what happened at the Bay of Pigs or what happened at Munich.

Even the word "appeasement," which means so much to people who are 40 years and older, means very little to people who are 25 and younger. They have never heard of Chamberlain; they have never heard of what happened at Munich. When we do not educate people in history, which I think is so fundamental, I think we are endangering our democracy.

Senator EAGLETON. You painted a rather bleak picture. Let me cite you something from a different and more optimistic perspective.

Jencks makes the point that today's high school students know more than their parents did at their age. The real problem is not in elementary and writing skills, but in the development of the more complex thought processes.

Are we then oversimplifying the problem by seeking to strengthen the basic skills?

Mr. COPPERMAN. I think Jencks' point is well taken. My research demonstrates conclusively—and again I do not think there is any argument about this—that the level of basic skills of children in kindergarten, first grade, second grade, and third grade is higher than at any time in the history of this country.

Children go into the first grade much, much better prepared than they ever have. They maintain this lead throughout the third grade and perhaps into the fourth grade.

Jencks is entirely correct when he says that at this level the skills are superior to what they were in the past. Deterioration does not set in until the late elementary grades and junior high school and high school. I would agree that we have a semantic

problem in the use of the words "basic skills"—I would like to add the words "and basic subject matter and knowledge," because I think this is really the problem, the fact that students do not study literature, do not do any writing.

A study out of the University of Washington in September of 1978 indicates that the average college freshman nationwide wrote a total of 10 compositions in 4 years of high school. That is one composition every 4 months.

I think if you will recall your own high school education, you probably wrote a composition about every week, as I did. This is a problem.

But the statement about the increase at the early grades is entirely correct. As a matter of fact, one of the reasons for that increase is sitting here in this hearing room today, and he is Rudolph Flesch, who wrote a book called "Why Johnny Can't Read" back in 1965 and caused a radical reconstruction of the basic skills curriculum, in kindergarten, first, second and third grades. That reconstruction in the teaching of phonics has had very positive effects.

Senator EAGLETON. Why does it trail off around the fourth-grade level?

Mr. COPPERMAN. For a number of reasons. Teachers are much better trained in the elementary grades to teach in a structured manner. When you are trained to teach reading in college, you learn to organize your youngsters into groups, and you sequence the skills you teach, and you test to make sure they have skills before you go on. It is a very structured kind of instruction.

At the late elementary grades and at the secondary level, the instruction is not nearly as carefully sequenced and not nearly as directed to meet the needs of each youngster. Also, the improvement in phonics, I think, deserves some credit, and also educational television, Sesame Street, Electric Company, Mr. Roberts—well, that is not the name of the television show. But it has Roberts in it somewhere—these things, all the studies I have seen are very positive, so children are coming to school with a lot better skills.

Senator EAGLETON. What about Head Start? Do you think that has had any beneficial impact?

Mr. COPPERMAN. I am familiar with all the research on Head Start, and most of it indicates that the positive effects of Head Start wear off by the second and third grade.

What these studies seem to indicate is that if you put a youngster in Head Start for a year or 2 years, he is significantly ahead of his peers when he starts kindergarten. However, within a couple of years, the head start that Head Start gave him has become insignificant. Those studies have been coming out year after year indicating the essential negative results from Head Start, but funding keeps going up year after year. As a matter of fact, funding last year went up by $250 million.

The goal of Head Start, when the original legislation was passed, was to give children a head start in academic achievement.

When the studies indicated that was not happening, the people who administered these programs redefined the goals of the program. Now the program is supposed to give students a head start in other areas; social confidence is basically what the new goal is.

Since these things cannot be measured, the people who administer them feel fairly safe in saying the programs are successful.

All of the administrators of Head Start programs report that the programs are enormously successful. The people who are doing it report that they are successful.

I do not feel particularly competent in saying they are not successful. What I do feel competent in saying is that the major studies of Head Start indicate that you cannot measure the success of the programs.

Senator EAGLETON. Thirty-three States, I believe, have some form of minimal competency testing. A good deal has been written about this, both pro and con.

What are your views on it, and if you support it, at what grade levels and how often should there be minimal competency testing?

Mr. COPPERMAN. I do support it. I support it because I feel like it is a mechanism by which communities can demand accountability from their schools. I am opposed to a national test and I am also opposed to a State test. I feel that local schools should develop their own competency tests. I am in favor of it. I would like to give you two examples which will demonstrate why I am in favor of it.

Richmond, Va., last year, for the first time, instituted competency testing. When the class which graduated last June were juniors, the school administered them a basic skills test, which they were going to require for graduation. Twenty-seven percent of the students failed the test. These students were on notice that they would not be given a high school diploma unless they passed the test.

That policy created shock waves throughout the community and in that school. It really shook up the entire community. It shook up students. Parents were really down on the backs of their children, especially parents whose youngsters had failed the test.

The principal came down very hard on his teachers. You have to make sure your youngsters have skills to pass this test.

When test was readministered prior to graduation, only 7 percent of them failed. I think the test mobilized everybody's attention towards basic skills. There are studies in England also which indicate that those schools which give a school-leaving exam at the appropriate age—and unfortunately, I cannot recall whether it is 11 or 13—have a higher average level of academic achievement than the schools which have elected not to make their students take this kind of exam.

I think the effect of competency tests, at whatever level, is to focus the attention of the youngsters, the parents, administrators, and teachers, on basic skills.

You asked at what level do I think they should be administered?

I think they should be administered at the end of third or fourth grade, because when a youngster goes into the fourth, and certainly the fifth grade, he is supposed to have a mastery of basic phonics. Certainly, before a youngster goes to the fifth grade, he should be able to decode successfully. If a student in the fifth grade cannot decode effectively, he is in real trouble.

I also feel quite strongly that before a youngster goes into high school, whether the high school is the 9th grade or the 10th grade, he should be tested to make certain that he has a functional level

of skills. Since we know the level of reading competence that one must have to just be employable in this society, I do not think it does youngsters any good at all to give them a piece of paper, a high school diploma, if, for example, they cannot function at a ninth grade level.

We know a youngster who cannot function at the ninth grade level cannot get a job as a clerk. Admittedly, there are plenty of jobs in this society that do not require the level of competence that one must have to be a clerk, but still, I think that it is a legitimate demand by parents, that unless a youngster has some severe intellectual handicap, he should at least come out of public school having that level of competence.

The fact that I am in favor of competency tests does not mean I am blind to their problems. There are some problems. It is going to take us a while to work those problems out.

I think what is happening in Florida is indicative of the problems we have with the Federal Government in education. There is an agency of the Federal Government that has joined in a suit against the Florida State Department of Education to stop the use of the Florida Minimum Competency Test.

Florida is administering a minimum competency test. It is the first State in the country to require competence among all its high school graduates.

Because a disproportionate number of minority students failed the test, a number of the students are suing in a class-action suit the State of Florida for failing to give them a diploma, and these students are being joined by a Federal agency in this suit.

I think this is an error in policy and it gives legitimacy to the paranoia of State and local school officials who feel that the Federal Government is attempting to interfere with their ability to do their job.

Senator EAGLETON. On the one hand, as you answered my question, you have expressed your abhorrance at the notion of a Federal competency test, and I understand why that frightens you; but you also said you opposed a statewide competency test. Then as you finish your answer, you seem to be supporting what Florida has done or seeks to do on a statewide basis.

How do you reconcile those differing views?

Mr. COPPERMAN. I reconcile them by my feeling that I am quite fallible. I feel that responsibility for education is a joint State and local responsibility. While I would give testimony in a State legislature that the competency test used should be the responsibility of the local school district, I feel that if a State makes a decision for statewide competency testing, then that is a legitimate prerogative of the State. Although I have a preference for local testing, I feel that education is a fundamental responsibility of the States and locals communities.

Please don't misunderstand me. I am not always in favor of States rights. There are a great many areas in which the Federal Government has some major responsibilities, whether it is from the Constitution, whether it is from our history, or whether it is from crying and pressing needs. I do not think that that situation obtains in education.

I think the local teacher, working for the local school district, is the agent for delivery of knowledge and basic skills in this country. I think they have to be given some support at your level.

Senator EAGLETON. In your testimony, from time to time, you used the phrase "current educational practice."

Now, in this vast country, with its deeply established local control of education, and you have addressed yourself to that, how can you explain the phrase "current educational practice" in terms that do justice to this diversity of style, tradition, and needs?

Mr. COPPERMAN. It is a big country and there are even, in any given school, a vast diversity of educational practices.

I certainly agree that you can today find teachers teaching with the same methodology that was used 20 years ago and 40 years ago, but there are trends in education. I am not the first to comment on it.

For example, in 1970, Charles Silberman, with the backing of the Carnegie Commission, published a book called "Crisis in the Classroom," in which he made the recommendation, which carried the weight of the Carnegie Commission behind it and therefore was adopted by many school districts, that high schools institute what are called minicourses. Instead of having, for example, a 1-year survey of Western Civ, the old standby, the high schools should adopt many 10-week courses, each one focusing in depth on a culture or a period of world history. For example, Africa would be a 10-week segment and the American Indian would be a 10-week segment or Japan.

This movement, from the old-fashioned Western Civ to minicourses, was and is a very powerful educational movement in this country. I am not saying that all schools went in this direction, but there has been movement toward Silberman's recommendations.

Similarly, there was a very powerful movement in American education at the elementary school level in the late 1960's and early 1970's called open education. Open education practitioners espoused both a philosophy and a methodology of classroom practice which held that the teacher should not attempt to control the behavior of all the students in the classroom, but instead should create an environment in which the youngsters were permitted to move freely throughout the room and study those things which interested them at that point in time when they were in fact interested in them.

Nationally this movement had a significant effect, and, there has been a movement toward a less controlled classroom environment.

When I talk about "current educational practice," I am really talking about the tendency to make these kinds of shifts.

Although it is a big country and although we do have local control, I find, to my amazement, the same kinds of things instituted in New Jersey, in Washington, D.C., San Francisco, in Chicago. I was invited to Canada recently by their educational television network to talk about their problems, because they have copied most of our educational methodology. We really have one North American culture.

Most of the things in education that have started here have been adopted there.

Senator EAGLETON. In your book, you cite a study by Frank Armbruster of the Hudson Institute, in which he analyzes some New York State figures. He concludes in that study that students in rural-area suburbs and small cities are experiencing a more rapid falloff in reading and math ability than are students in the New York City School System.

Did that surprise you? And what do you conclude therefrom?

Mr. COPPERMAN. That study is reinforced by the California State data which indicates that the academic achievement of students at the 90th percentile level, that is, the top 10 percent in ability, and students at the 50 percentile level, the average ability students, is declining significantly faster than the achievement of students at the 10th percentile level. It is also reinforced by data from a renorming study of the Iowa test of basic skills—the level of skill of the brighter students is declining faster than the level of skill of the average or below-average students.

My interpretation of this data is that the focus of public education in the last 15 years is students in the bottom 30 to 40 percent in skill and ability. It is my judgment that we are not challenging and stimulating our most able students because we are putting our effort and attention into teaching the students at lower ability levels.

I think the students are suffering.

As a matter of fact, in California, interestingly, the students at the lowest ability levels have experienced no decline at all during the same period in which students in the average ability and above-average ability levels have experienced very sharp declines.

If you look at the focus of the public educational effort in this country between 1957 and 1964, the postsputnik era, the focus definitely was on upper ability students. I do not think it is coincidental that the academic achievement of all students during this period made gains at a greater rate than students during any other period in our history. It is simply an error in educational policy to reduce standards and reduce demands on students in the name of trying to reach the low ability students.

It is my experience as a teacher that children perform to levels of expectations placed upon them. When you try to teach the top 40 percent, everybody gains. When you move in the direction of not trying to provide very stimulating experiences for our brightest students, they do not perform.

If you look even at the raw numbers of students who score over 600 or over 700 on the SAT, that number has been reduced by 30 to 50 percent, even though the number of students taking the test has remained fairly stable.

We know that the average IQ of children starting first grade is much higher than it has ever been before in our history. We are talking about children with a great deal of potential who are not developing their skills. I really do think that it is dangerous for this society.

Senator EAGLETON. In your listing of the eight Federal evils, which you ticked off, at numerals 1 through 8, the first one that you identified—I do not take this to be in a sense your prioritized list—but the first one you tick off is the Supreme Court's decision mandating bilingual education programs.

Are bilingual education programs per se bad?

Mr. COPPERMAN. Yes; I would say so. Now that I have come up with an absolute answer, let me qualify.

The Supreme Court made a decision in *Lau* v. *Nichols*, nine to nothing, that local school districts must provide bilingual education services to children in public schools who could not function in English.

This has to be one of the most reckless educational decisions ever reached by the Supreme Court. When that decision was rendered, there was no evidence to indicate that there was a method of instruction more effective than simply having a youngster submerged in an English-speaking environment.

But reckless or not, the decision was rendered. Actually, a couple of years earlier, Congress had passed title 7 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, establishing guidelines and regulations regarding bilingual education.

The legislative intent, as I read the law, is to help children who have difficulty functioning in English make the transition to an English-speaking society, and especially to a school in which course work is taught in English.

The intent, is praiseworthy and meritorious. However, if we look at how this intent is being carried out in practice, we need to look at a study conducted for the U.S. Office of Education by the American Institutes for Research in Palo Alto in 1977. There were four principal findings to the study.

The first finding was that students in bilingual education classes all over the country develop their English-language skills slower than comparable students who are not in bilingual education. Now, this actually should not surprise any of us, since there was no evidence that bilingual instruction was going to help when the Supreme Court or Congress made rulings or passed the legislation. As a matter of fact, it is commonsense; the most effective foreign language instruction is what is called the immersion process, where you immerse the youngster in an environment where he only hears the language he is attempting to learn. That was the old-fashioned way of doing it in our schools. Bilingual instruction is the new-fashioned way, which is that you have to give the youngster instruction in his own language a certain percentage of the day.

The second finding was that the cost of educating students who are given bilingual instruction is about 35-percent higher than the cost of educating comparable students.

The next two findings are devastating The next finding is that less than one-third of the students nationwide who are in federally-funded bilingual programs are not fluent in English. That means two-thirds of the students are fluent in English.

I ask you, what are they doing in bilingual programs?

The fourth finding will tell you what they are doing in bilingual programs. Over 85 percent of bilingual program directors reported that even when a student reached fluency in English, they would keep those children in bilingual programs. Now, the study did not say why they would keep them in the bilingual programs, but from my research and my discussions with people, I can give you two reasons:

First, the intent of the program directors in these programs is not the same intent that most legislators had when they voted for the bilingual programs.

The intent of most legislators, I believe, was to help the children make a transition to an English-language speaking society.

One of the major purposes of bilingual program directors is to preserve the linguistic identity of subgroups in American society. They are using these programs and the public schools to accomplish their social goals, which I do not believe are shared by most legislators.

The second reason is simply self-interest. A bureaucrat with a bigger empire is a bigger emperor. The more students in his program, the bigger the bureaucrat's budget and staff, and the greater his power. It is not surprising that less than a third of the students have difficulty with English.

On an anecdotal basis, I can tell you what is happening in California.

Do you know that in the legislation mandating bilingual education, it specifies that when you have a certain percentage of students who are, for example, not fluent in English, only functional in Spanish, the teacher must be fluent in Spanish. The legislation does not say the teacher must be fluent in English. We have a significant number of classroom teachers functioning in southern California who are monolingual in Spanish. They do not speak English. It is not surprising that students do not develop their English-language skills.

The way this legislation has been implemented totally defeats what I believe was the intent of most legislators who supported it. The fact is, there was no research to support the original legislation in the first place. And the Supreme Court decision which was based on nothing except the very good arguments of some very good lawyers.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, thank you very much, Mr. Copperman. You have been, to say the least, a provocative witness. I do not think it was our intention to start off on a negative note. But your commentary has been rather negative.

Interestingly enough, the third witness we will have this morning, is Harold Howe, U.S. Commissioner of Education from 1966 to 1968. That is the point in time when these basic skills appeared to wane. Perhaps he will give us a somewhat difference perspective.

But you are free to stay with us. I do not know if we are going to have rebuttal or anything like that.

Thank you very much. You have come a considerable distance and obviously have given a great deal of thought, both as a scholar and administrator of The Reading Institute.

Your information and observations are most helpful.

We will take a 2-minute recess.

[Brief recess.]

Senator EAGLETON. The subcommittee will once again be in session.

Our second witness is Dr. Rudolf Flesch, author of the famous and much-quoted book "Why Johnny Can't Read."

Dr. Flesch, we welcome you.

You may proceed.

STATEMENT OF DR. RUDOLF FLESCH, AUTHOR OF "WHY JOHNNY CAN'T READ"

Dr. FLESCH. Mr. Chairman, I am very happy to be here. I am very grateful to you for inviting me to these hearings, particularly at the early stage. I am delighted to be here to offer whatever contribution I can make.

You have a draft of my testimony. However, maybe I will just go along expressing myself freely rather than reading it.

I would wish that at any time you may want to come in with questions, please try to keep this a dialog.

I am invited here because in 1955 I wrote a book called "Why Johnny Can't Read," dealing specifically with the situation in the basic skills and the teaching of reading in elementary schools.

The book was sharply critical of the present practices and also started with the fact that, even at that time, contrary to what Mr. Copperman said, there was a decline, a visible general decline in achievement in the schools in all subjects, particularly in reading; so that was the occasion for my writing this book.

It goes back, this deplorable situation goes back much further than Mr. Copperman seems to think. I think statistics would bear me out.

I probably should start with my credentials. I am a graduate, Ph. D. degree in educational research from Teachers College, Columbia University, which I gained in 1943. I have since been a free-lance writer, researcher, and consultant, and have written a number of books, almost 20, in the field of reading and writing, primarily.

Throughout my career—I should say, my dissertation with Columbia dealt with so-called readability formulas, formulas to measure the difficulty of reading matter. This became very widely known. It is used to this day very widely in this country.

In the past 5 or 10 years, I have been particularly active in the problems of simplifying legal documents. I have done this work for banks, insurance companies, et cetera, and I am also a consultant to the Federal Trade Commission, where I have worked with their attorneys on simplifying, putting into plain English, some 12 to 15 regulations which are now in the pipeline and will appear soon, I hope.

Now, in the course of my work, I wrote several books on the question of readability and so forth. In the course of my research on this question of what makes language difficult, I tried to explore everything—what has been done by professional linguists.

Somewhere in the late 1940's, I wrote a letter to Professor Leonard Bloomfield at Yale who, at the time, was the leading language scholar in the country, whether he had any views expressed, or papers, he could let me have on the teaching of reading and the difficulty of reading matter.

He sent me back two papers he had written that had been published a few years earlier in the Elementary English Journal, and I learned from these papers by this outstanding scholar in the field of language that he disagreed violently with the method of teaching reading that was practiced universally in American schools, and proposed a method of his own that he said would be superior.

Now, I want to at the outset explain the various terms so we are clear what I am talking about.

The method now, to this day, overwhelmingly used in American schools is a method which starts with the recognition of what is known as sight words, a method which is known as the look-and-say method, or the whole-word method. A child is given a series of readers, going up to the sixth grade, or sometimes eighth grade, in which, gradually, one word after another, beginning with a handful of simple words, a word is shown with a corresponding picture. It is repeated many, many times, so that the child learns to memorize the association between the picture of a chicken, or a dog, or what have you, with the printed symbol—d-o-g, let's say.

So these sight words are built up and somewhere later on, as it is now, the child is given what is known as phonics, or, the more fashionable term now is "decoding."

The English language, like all alphabetic languages, is written and printed by way of the alphabet.

The English language has 44 different sounds which it can be analyzed into. However, unfortunately, our alphabet has 26 letters, which creates somewhat of a difficulty. Nevertheless, the language is written and printed by way of the alphabet.

There is a code, like many other codes—music, Morse code, braille, any number of codes—based on the alphabet.

So throughout history, in all nations where there is an alphabetic language, the obvious way to start a child to learn how to read is to tell him about the alphabet and then he learns the code, hopefully, gradually, and is given some exercises in the decoding. This is how it starts.

Now, this method is used, as I say, in virtually all countries except the United States; and, for the average child, of about 6 years, or even 5 years, this is not a very difficult thing to do. He learns it in a few weeks or a few months, normally.

I brought with me one of the books that was published in the early 1960's. It is called, "What Ivan Knows That Johnny Doesn't." This is by Dr. Arthur S. Trace, Jr.

Trace studied the Russian system, Soviet Russian system, of education. He found that Soviet children, just like the Dutch, Germans, French, and what have you, are given a little book and it takes them a few weeks to learn the code of the Russian cyrillic alphabet.

The effect of this is that after a few weeks of learning how to decode, that is done. Then Russian children, like children in all other countries, are given anthologies of literature, of increasing degrees of difficulty and sophistication and thought content, and so they go; they get Tolstoy, Pushkin, and so on, first and second grades, and from there, I think they read "War and Peace" in the sixth grade, I learned from this book; and I have been rereading it to some extent.

Dr. Trace also says—which is an interesting sidelight—that in his travels, he went into the sixth grade somewhere in Russia in trying to find out what problems they had. He asked the teacher: "What about reading problems or remedial reading cases?" She looked at him in utter astonishment, and said, "Never heard of such a thing." As far as she knew, children learned to read during

the opening weeks or months of the first grade, and the problem never reared its head. That, to my knowledge, is the situation in most European countries.

The only major country to this day that has a nonalphabetical writing method is China. I do not know what the present situation in China is.

I was brought up abroad. I went to school in Vienna, Austria, and like every other schoolchild in Austria, Germany, and so forth, it took a little while to learn the decoding of the German alphabet, and that was the end of that. From there on the sequence of reading instruction was the reading of anthologies of literary material.

The same was true in the United States until about 1925. And through most of the second half of the 19th Century, and barely into the 20th, I believe, there was the famous McGuffey Readers. I studied them. In the first Reader there is a section devoted to learning the code: Hat, Mat, Bat, and that kind of thing. Usually in English it is preferable to teach the child the short vowels before you get to the long vowels.

For instance, if he learns a word with a short vowel, like hat, that is simple, like cat and mat, and so on, so that is easy to establish acquaintance with short vowels. The long vowel is more sophisticated, and generally a silent "e" at the end.

There is a book which was published in 1973—I mentioned some books in my written testimony, but not this one. It is called "The New Illiterates," by Samuel Blumenfeld. Mr. Blumenfeld did some quite excellent historical research, and discovered the astounding fact that the method now in vogue in the United States, confronting the child with whole words rather than phonics, sound and letters beforehand, this method was invented by somebody called Gallaudet in Boston. This man was a teacher of deaf-mutes. He had an institute there. Deaf-mutes, of course, could not distinguish or hear the sounds, and he could not do the normal thing, teaching them letters that stand for the sound.

So he invented this method of giving a picture of a whole word, and so on. Then he had the brainstorm that this may be a good thing to teach normal children, not deaf-mutes, and he published papers, and so on, and for a short period in the 1830's and 1840's this had a certain vogue. But obviously it did not work too well.

As I said, throughout the 19th Century, and into the early 20th, the normal method of teaching the alphabet, that is, what we call phonics, was used. Now, sometime in the 1920's American educators rediscovered this method, the deaf-mute type method for teaching children whole words with pictures, and so on. This was part of the movement, I suppose, to make it easier on the children, they thought.

Then some of the educators, in order to acquaint the children with the letters and sounds which they did not know, and were not taught in the first grade, second grade, and so on, gradually they brought it in so a new type of instruction was developed in those days called intrinsic or incidental phonics. That is, you start with the look and say, or whole-word method, and throughout the first grade you build up 100 words, and another 100 or 200 words in the second grade, third grade, and so on.

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In the second, third, fourth grade, then gradually—incidentally, as the word says, phonics was introduced, and the child then got a little phonics, and he was never taught the alphabet maybe, and he was never taught the real system of the English language of how it is spelled, how 44 sounds are expressed on paper.

Now, this method is now better known as decoding. That is, the alphabetic code is taught. The child, in order to learn how to read, has to learn decoding the alphabetic print. As Mr. Copperman said just a little while ago, the idea now is that by fourth or fifth grade he should know decoding.

However, this is much too late. This, I think, is where the catastrophe begins that has overtaken our educational system. I had written other books, not on elementary education, but I had gotten Dr. Bloomfield's papers, and I had taught my oldest daughter. A son of a friend of mine was in the seventh grade, 12 years old, and he could not read, and I said to the mother of this boy, look, I know how to do this. Why do you not let me work with him? I did. It took about 3 months, as I recall.

I used whatever came handy, Bloomfield's method, what I knew, what seemed to me a natural way of going about it, teaching him the code first, and going on from there. It took about 3 or 4 months, and he was up to par. He was a bright boy, one of several children, and by solving his problem I have earned the gratitude of his parents. Of course, by now he is in his middle 30's, a college graduate, insurance executive, and lives happily ever after.

I then decided to write a book. I put in the book that I wrote the book for parents, because they will not get the proper teaching of the child from the school, which is all devoted to other systems, which is pernicious, I said. I put in the second half of this book instructions and exercises according to the phonics system, and I wrote it for parents. I said go to it, do it at kindergarten age and you will never have a problem, or on vacation, just to forestall the evil influence of the word method teaching in the schools, which was universal, and is to this day.

I received hundreds and hundreds of letters from grateful parents, some extremely emotional, and embarrassingly so, that I had saved their children, and so forth. So there is a whole generation, I guess, of children brought up by my book.

In my work for my dissertation at Columbia, I learned educational research, training in scientific methods, statistics, and so forth. I went into this and studied the whole background. I went over the whole literature. I found at the time—this was in 1954, when I actually wrote my book—I found that there were in existence at the time 11 comparative studies of what is called systematic phonics, or this phonics from the word "go" as against the so-called whole-word method or combined partially with the so-called intrinsic or incidental phonics.

My point is this: The only way to teach a child how to read and write an alphabetic language is to start with systematic phonics, to teach him the decoding instantly, right from the start; so then when he is in the possession of the code, he can do whatever tickles his fancy. I found 11 studies that had been published comparing the effects and the test results between children taught with systematic phonics method and children taught by other methods.

I found, to my astonishment, that all 11 of these studies—that is all there were—showed the advantage of systematic phonics. There was not a single one that pointed the other way. The scientific truth was completely established. If you want a child to read the English language effectively, you will have to start with systematic phonics or decoding of the alphabet. Anything else you do does not work.

And I ought to add, since a child is started in the current system with so-called sight words that he looks at whole, a great many of the most common words in the English language are spelled irregularly—well, you have regular spelling of the word cat—C-A-T—and once you have learned the beginning sound, and how they go together, you have learned it. Studies have shown that about 13 percent of the English words have some irregularity in spelling, not all together, but some; 87 percent of the words in the English language are totally alphabetic. They go by the rules.

Now, with the sight words, and in order to concoct some sort of story interest for this first grader, naturally there had to be some irregularly spelled words, and as I say, some of the most common—well, for example one—O-N-E. If you would spell it according to the rules of the game of the English alphabetic system, it would be spelled W-U-N. The same with the word T-W-O, which has a superfluous "W," and the word four, which one would spell F-O-R-E.

So the child goes into the first, second, third grade, and so on, and unless he possibly gets some incidental phonics, he learns these words. Many of them do not go by the rules, at least to some extent. By the time he reaches the secret of the code, which has been withheld from him up to that point, by that time he is thoroughly spoiled as a learner because all he has been taught is that certain groups of letters mean certain things, and the idea that the letters in themselves stand for sounds and they are to be read from left to right, the system as such, he is not taught. So by the time he gets there, he has gotten all the confusing things, he has gotten dozens of words that do not follow these rules, and they should be left, of course, for much later.

So because of this, the method of teaching in the schools, by way of opening with the look and say method, creates a confusion in the child's mind, and a partial or total inability to read that he will carry with him all his life. It will hamper him forever. That is true of almost all the people in this room, with the exception of some of the older generation. I was brought up abroad, and I found that a great many people do not remember how they were taught in the first grade. So when I published my book, this was a great surprise to everybody. Excuse me for being so lengthy. I wish I could make this shorter, but it is a big story.

Senator EAGLETON. All I know is I cannot spell.

Dr. FLESCH. That is part of it. If it were properly done, reading and writing should be taught together—peferably writing first. This would help enormously in spelling, if you learn the alphabet, and so on. So we have, among other things, very poor spellers all over the place, and that is part of the reason.

Now, my book appeared in 1955. It created an uproar. I did not even mean this book for the educational fraternity, I wrote it for the parents, as I said, but there was an uproar. The book got some

good reviews, in general newspapers, and so on, but it was panned rather viciously in the educational journals, among educational circles, and I was attacked in the most personal manner. It was a horrible experience quite literally to me, because I was the bad boy of the educational establishment.

This is partly the reason why I did not particularly follow up on it. I had said what I thought needed saying in my book. All I earned was the universal attacks and hostility, contempt from everybody in the educational field.

As I said, my main interest is simplification of language, plain English, and so forth. So I returned to that. I did not want to spend the rest of my life, more than a quarter century ago, with this continuing heartbreak, so I did not do it. Although of course I followed up.

What happened was that the educational system, establishment, stood pat. They wrote me off as a heretic, and somebody who does not know anything about these things, and so forth, and went on in its merry way with these readers and systems, with the look-say method, which you have to compare with the alphabetic code, decoding method—you need to teach the child how to read, period. You need one book, one primer.

I brought with me one of the books that existed at the time, and that I mentioned in my book. It was this one book, Reading with Phonics by Hay and Wingo. Hay was a teacher in the suburbs of Chicago. Mr. Wingo was superintendent at that system near Chicago. Ms. Hay, who died many years ago, developed this little primer. Mr. Wingo wrote it with her. I brought this book, and I am happy to give it to the committee for whatever use they may want, to make of it.

I went to this suburb described in the book, and saw all these children. In the first grade—(this was around February, when I was there)—they were reading. I described it in my book, and I took with me a copy that day, of the Chicago Tribune, and I showed it to them. Sure enough, they read, just random stories.

I said what does this mean? So they read it. It was all in February of the first year in school, they had learned by this little primer. What I mean to say is that the prevailing look and say method, with or without the cosmetic improvement, with so-called incidental phonics, takes an unbelievable amount of time to teach a child. There are series that go up to the sixth grade, some go through the eighth grade, learning how to read—not reading anything worthwhile, like Dickens, or what have you, but just these exercises of how you figure out what the words mean. Even that does not work. You see, as soon as you come across a word that you may be unfamiliar with—the best example is a name. A child if not taught phonics, would look at the word "Tom" and since this does not stand for anything that you can paint a picture of, the child does not learn it, because he has never been taught certain things.

The educational publishers, it must be said, although I did not write my book in the sense of attacking anybody, or so on, however it must be said that the books and work books, and teachers manuals, and so on and so forth, the whole apparatus of teaching children to read is the main source of profit of the textbook publishers, because of course, there are millions and millions.

Now, if you build this up to the sixth grade or eighth grade, you have an apparatus of these, usually two for a grade, so in itself you have 12, 15, all kinds of additional materials, work books and so on—I will come to this in a moment—in 1967 there were data at the time that the expense of this reading, teaching apparatus per child was $30. By now it is 1979, and this has even grown, these things, and I would not be surprised if it were $200 per child.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me see if I understand that. Are you talking about the cost of the teaching materials, the books?

Dr. FLESCH. Yes; I am not talking about the personnel.

Senator EAGLETON. Give me those figures again. What year, 1967?

Dr. FLESCH. I will come back to that. It was $30, and there were statistics in 1967, or 1965, actually, and it is my estimate that it may be $200 per child as of now. If you teach a child how to read with a phonic primer, this is twice as big, the teacher's edition, so the child's edition is half of that—you could put that in a paperback, and it may cost a dollar per child, and you teach a child to read [indicating].

That is what has happened as a consequence of the erroneous methods used by our educators. Mr. Copperman, in his testimony, has said, among other things, that now since the fifties there has been a change, and the children learn phonics, and so on. I have not found that. It was 90, 95 percent the wrong method in those times. It still is today.

As I said, I have not personally followed up—my career has pushed me to different paths, but about a year after my book appeared, some people got interested, and they founded the Reading Reform Foundation, which was founded to push, propagate the teaching of systematic phonics to children in the first grade—this Foundation is flourishing, and in my statement I have the address, the main office, in Scottsdale, Ariz., and they collected a lot of data.

From what I get from this, it is always a precious victory somewhere systematic phonics is introduced, but on the whole, the history of the last 25 years has been dismal because of constant and unrelenting resistance by the whole educational establishment, and particularly by the textbook publishers.

I want to say at this point it is my opinion and conviction, on the basis of scientific evidence, that there is an interrelationship between textbook publishers, between the educational establishment, between the Federal Office of Education and offices in the States, and also, which is important, those faculties of teachers colleges that deal with the teaching of how to teach reading, and most of the teachers are products of these establishments, have master's degrees, and all through their training in the field of education they have been taught that the teaching of beginning sight method, with or without the cosmetic later addition of incidental phonics, that is the way to do it.

What I propose is systematic phonics. I feel that the problem you are faced with in this basic skills investigation lies right there in the teaching of children how to read in the first grade or second grade. I say if it were done properly according to scientific established fact, it could be done easily, as it is done in other countries.

In England they begin to teach how to read mostly with this method in what is called infant school, that is what we call kindergarten. Children in England are beginning to learn how to read at five, and by the end of the first grade they usually know it.

I ought to say that due to the influence of the United States, which of course is worldwide—we are a very rich country, and have enormous influence in anything, Coca Cola, our cars, and everything—now this pernicious reading system also has made some inroads in the meanwhile in Germany, in Belgium, Israel, and so on. I do not know what the situation is there, but whatever is wrong there, retardation or remedial cases, all of this is due to the influence of the United States.

To begin with none of these countries had any such problem. It did not exist. Of course, there was a great deal of noise after the publication of my book, not that anyone in the educational world accepted it. No one, absolutely no one.

Now, in 1967 there appeared the book "Learning to Read, the Great Debate," by Prof. Jean Chall of the Harvard School of Education. Doctor Chall, i must explain this, because it is relevant to what I am saying, was not a friend of mine. Doctor Chall was a Professor at City College in New York and she went on from there to Harvard. There are several instances in this book that are derogatory about me. She did not like me a bit, or what I stood for, or what I had written.

I also got the clear impression that she had never read my book because it was outside the established situation. But being a decent scholar and scientist, she had a Carnegie grant for 3 years, lots of money, staff and whatnot, she went over the whole thing again. She found that from 1912 to 1954, she found nine of my 11 studies—two she did not because she did not read my book—but she found the same studies that I had found. There was no question about it. They all said that systematic phonics has better effects and is a better means of teaching reading.

Then, of course, she wrote, she closed the book on her materials in 1965. I went over this. She found another 11 or so, 12 studies between the two books. Again they showed the same thing. The effect was that systematic phonics works. The other thing works poorly.

So she came up with this business of meaning emphasis. This is what she called the look-and-say or word method, as against code emphasis, or what I would call systematic phonics. However, being a member of the educational fraternity, she was not quite as outspoken in her recommendations, and she said that the present system and textbooks should be adjusted, modified, and so on.

So if you look at the findings, it is perfectly clear that she corroborated what I had said 100 percent. There was not the slightest doubt about it. Well, she was not quite as outspoken in her recommendations, which is unfortunate.

Now, Doctor Chall commanded more respect in the educational fraternity than I did. So certain changes were introduced. It is my opinion, or my finding, really, that they were all cosmetic. They did not really change. The only thing to do was to start the child learning the alphabetic code first, and then being confronted with reading—if it is done in the other way, it does not work.

Now, the textbook publishers went on, they made some changes in material, but basically much the same thing. It was still going on.

I added a page to my testimony, and I would like to put this on the record——

Senator EAGLETON. What page are you talking about?

Dr. FLESCH. This is the added page, hopefully at the tail end. It would be page 9. The first paragraph, I thought it would be proper to list at least those where I have knowledge, these are major textbook houses that do publish the so-called Basal Reading Series. They are Ginn & Co., Scott Foresman, Harper & Row, American Book Co., MacMillan, Allyn & Bacon, Houghton Mifflin, Lyons & Carnahan, Winston, Bank Street, Bobbs-Merrill and Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. This is a list of 12. There may be more. As I understand it, they have a shared monopoly practically of the elementary reading instruction market.

I consider these readers that are used a chief source of educational deterioration of our educational system. As I said, they have not changed much.

I also brought a little book with me called Tomorrow's Illiterates. This is an anthology by Charles Walcutt. Similarly in the book I mentioned earlier, The New Illiterates—a similar title by Mr. Blumenfeld. Both of these contain a short list of materials based on the systematic phonics principle. They are mainly the Economy Co., Lippincott and the Open Court readers. As I understand it, Open Court and Phonetic Keys to Reading, published by Economy Co., start with long vowels, which I think is a poor way to do it. Open court readers do much the same thing.

What I recommend is starting with short vowels, and starting with systematic phonics. The Lippincott readers are also a series—apparently Lippincott & Co. could not escape, or nobody would want to lose all this money in 6 to 8 years, so they adjusted to that.

It is my opinion that it could all be done with inexpensive books, the first grade, or possibly kindergarten age, and going on from there, really substantial by anthologies, or whatever—Mark Twain, Emily Dickinson, and all the beauties of our literature, going up to the more sophisticated materials.

I brought with me a book by Doctor Linksz, a Hungarian. The book is called On Writing, Reading, and Dyslexia. Doctor Linksz is an ophthalmologist, and he found, and in his practice has counted many children who cannot read, and he found that in his opinion, and there are other references, from the point of view of medicine and ophthalmology, there is no such thing as dyslexia as a disease, and this is a disease invented by the educators. Children who supposedly have dyslexia are victims of the current system of teaching reading. And there is the disease where you read was for saw—left to right reversal. This again is simply a child who in a poor system was never told about beginning to read from left to right.

When fancy strikes him, he reads from right to left, and he has strephosymbolia—all of this is complete nonsense. There is no such thing as such a disease. Nobody has ever established any brain damage or any physiological, detectable source of these mythical diseases. It is simply that our system produces these victims.

So since the researches of Doctor Chall—and incidentally, I hope this committee may hear Doctor Chall when you get to New England—and also Mr. Blumenfeld, who lives in Boston, and most certainly I would suggest that you might hear someone representative of the Reading Reform Foundation who handled all the data on where it has been done, what the successes are, and so forth. I am not up on these things.

I understand, just as one example, which struck me as interesting, a newspaper reporter wrote a series in Rochester, N.Y., where the parents of black students got so fed up with children not learning to read that they staged a revolt and they then adopted the open court system, one of these systems based on systematic phonics, and again the results seem to be excellent, as they always are when this is tried in any number of situations.

I wanted to say in connection with the Reading Reform Foundation, I am obviously on the board, advisory board of the foundation, but I have not been active in it for the reason and I want to stress it this morning—I found the membership of the general intellectual climate in the foundation uncongenial, because they are conservative minded, most of them, and I am a liberal, philosophically, politically, what have you. I consider it extremely unfortunate that one of the very unhappy things that has happened is that the controversy that was started with my book, and now the difference between the problem of teaching children systematic phonics or with sight reading first, somehow or other this has been associated with conservative views in the field of education and all kinds of things.

Very naturally Mr. Copperman got into busing and Federal bureaucracy, and I do not know what all, and in all of these things I totally disagree with him. I just think it is a historical accident, to my knowledge. I wish that within the framework of the present liberal philosophy in education, with all its ramifications, if they only would do one thing, that they start with systematic phonics, and a great many problems would solve themselves. A great deal is built on that. By the time the child gets to the second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth grade, junior high, senior high school, he is handicapped. He cannot properly read. It gets worse and worse.

As you know, there were statistics even at the time when I wrote my book. The level of achievement was falling at the time. I do not know where Mr. Copperman got his figures, but I think it has fallen ever since, and I have not seen any upward movement in the late fifties or sixties. I think it has gone down. Very naturally it starts in the first grade, and it goes to the end of the elementary school, and it reached high school in the sixties.

By now, in the last few years, there was a falling off of the SAT College Entrance Test, very sharply and remarkably. If it starts in the first grade, it took 25 years, and I think up to the SAT's, so now we have handicapped college students who cannot read properly. I do not know what the statistics are. I have seen statistics that 50 percent of our population are functionally illiterate.

Most certainly you have 40 percent unemployment of adolescents and young people in inner cities, mostly black. Of course, most of them are functionally illiterate, never learning how to read properly.

Doctor Chall has an interesting study somewhere that the systematic method of teaching phonics—it is even better for lower income children, and so they are particularly handicapped with the teaching that happens in the schools. A middle-class child in the nature of things has certain advantages, the parents are more interested, and they help them a little, magazines at home, and all kinds of influences, so they may hopefully overcome this handicap in spite of the poor method of teaching. The poor, low-income child carries his handicap all through life, and cannot get a job, and so forth.

If you forgive me a minute, I want to look at some points I have mentioned here. If you turn to page 4 of my statement, you see some pictures. I tried to drive the point home to you and other committee members. As I said, it is very clearly, a most convincing argument. If you think of a non-Roman alphabet, such as the Greek alphabet, Hebrew, the Russian alphabet, Arabic—well, you have four well known languages, and for a moment think of the unbelievable difficulty anyone would have learning the whole wor[illegible]d then memorizing 100, 200, a thousand whole words, neve[illegible]ng given the key, the code. You learn Russian and you have to learn by memory, what is one collection of symbols that means Pravda, and another collection of symbols that means Dostoyevski. You are given no clue as to what the letters mean. It is an unbelievable task.

Yet this is how children are taught. The only thing of this kind I was familiar with is German shorthand. If you look at the picture of the book, the flower and the Moon—I put underneath what I remembered I think is the proper German shorthand for this.

Now, imagine you go to school, and this is what you have to learn, how these little squiggles differ from each other, and how it is different to have the squiggle for book, and the squiggle for flower. Nothing could be so convincing, I hope. Well, it has never convinced educators. Maybe it is not.

Senator EAGLETON. I think we will get into some questions now, Doctor Flesch, if we may.

Dr. FLESCH. Yes, sure.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me see if I have got this terminology straight in my own head. From your perspective there are basically two schools of thought. On the one hand is phonics, you sometimes referred to it as systematic phonics.

Dr. FLESCH. Systematic or intensive phonics also.

Senator EAGLETON. On the other hand is a system called sight words, sometimes referred to as look and say. Is it also referred to as intrinsic phonics, or is there a hybrid in between the two?

Dr. FLESCH. No; the sight words, whole word method, that is, as I showed you in the little picture. The child is taught to associate the global whole word image.

Senator EAGLETON. I understand that.

Dr. FLESCH. This is how it begins. After the publication of my book, and after the publication of Doctor Chall's book, most of these textbooks did some cosmetics in reconciling the two. The children are given what is known as incidental or intrinsic phonics that sometime in the second, third, later stage—well, he is taught that there is a difference between monkey and donkey, and look at

the first letter, and that gives you the clue—a very frequent word. That makes it clear, does it not? I hope.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, you said in your testimony that the decline in basic skills began in the twenties, and you said specifically—well, you seemed to zero in on the year 1925 or thereabouts.

Dr. FLESCH. Or thereabouts.

Senator EAGLETON. Do the statistics——

Dr. FLESCH. The nonalphabetic, nonsystematic method, was introduced about that time. Of course, it took a span of years until the results came to the surface.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you think a fair reading of the statistics would bear you out, that is, that in the thirties it was worse than the twenties, in the forties it was worse than the thirties, and the fifties it was worse than the forties, because Mr. Copperman did just the opposite almost in that phraseology?

Dr. FLESCH. Yes; I do. I think there is a visible deterioration. At one point in Doctor Chall's book, which was written in 1964, she says as one of the elements of her research and preparation of the book, she interviewed 25 people in the field. Twenty-three of them denied that there had been any deterioration of reading skill. Only two, she said, she did not name them, two proponents of systematic phonics said there was a deterioration.

When she asked about statistical data, these two people, of whom I was obviously one, said the fact was obvious. It was obvious. At the time there were innumerable newspaper articles, and so on, there was dissatisfaction among parents. The thing was known.

I should also add there is so much to be said, and I apologize for taking so much time, that the tests that are used are spurious. You see, if you have a child who learns 50 words in the first grade by sight, and then you give him a test, well naturally the test gives them these words, to the extent that they have memorized and remembered what they mean. That is in itself already a falsification. What they should be given in a true test is what they have not seen, and they can puzzle out by knowing the alphabetic code.

One would give them a word like "microphone"—microphone would be a good example. Now, if you take a youngster in the first grade, and he has never seen the word "microphone," but if he has learned the meaning of M-I-C-R-O-P-H-O-N-E—he would puzzle out what microphone stands for. He may not know the meaning of the word, but at that stage that is wholly irrelevant.

The thing is he has learned the code. He can put together the sounds it stands for. In the case of microphone, this is a regularly spelled word, so he can do it.

Now, the tests normally cover vocabulary that presumably has been learned. So they are falsifying the whole process. What they should give him is a test of a word he has not seen.

Senator EAGLETON. I am curious. In your supplemental sheet on page 9, where you refer specifically to certain textbook publishers, one name is left out, which I think is one of the giants in the trade, and that is McGraw-Hill. They were the publishers of Doctor Chall's book. Am I to conclude that McGraw-Hill is more progressive from your point of view, or more enlightened, or why were they left out?

Dr. FLESCH. Senator, some publishers have elementary school textbook divisions, and some do not. Honestly, I am not informed whether McGraw-Hill has an elementary textbook series on the market or not. I would not know. This list is by no means definitive. I thought it would be proper to actually give a list of names. This is what I am talking about.

Senator EAGLETON. I have not read Doctor Chall's book. I excuse myself on that account. You say in her book the statistical basis is there for your conclusion that the decline began in the thirties, forties, and fifties?

Dr. FLESCH. No; she does not say yes or no, and she does not go into it.

Senator EAGLETON. On the one hand we had Doctor Copperman who testified that the decline started in the sixties, and he attributes a large measure of it to the Federal bureaucracy, the Congress, the Supreme Court, and the Federal district courts, and you say that is not so, that the decline began much earlier, and the catastrophe, to use your word, was the change in methodology.

Dr. FLESCH. I say so, and I am convinced of it. At the time when I wrote my book, in 1954, this was just a generally known fact, and there was a great deal of discussion in newspapers, and so forth, mostly dissatisfied parents, who could not understand what was happening, middle class parents, like my friend whose son I taught, and could not understand it.

Here was a child, high IQ, obviously a gifted child, who could not read.

Senator, if I may add a word. You see, as I said, the situation is falsified by the nature of the tests. The test, if clued to the wrong method, and you ask what the word "chicken" stands for, which he has learned in the first grade, that is one thing, but if you test a word like "microphone," you get even an entirely different result.

Senator EAGLETON. You testified regarding visiting a school in the Soviet Union. In one of the books you mentioned there was reference made to the sixth grade in the Soviet Union. Someone asked, do you have reading problems, and the teacher shrugged her shoulder and said what are you talking about? We do not have any.

Is it all that easy? Are there no students in the Soviet Union that have any reading problems at all?

Dr. FLESCH. I could not answer the question.

Senator EAGLETON. Are some of the Western European nations following us down the road?

Dr. FLESCH. They have, to some extent. I do not have any current data.

Senator EAGLETON. You seem to point the finger of blame at the textbook publishers. What evil hold do all of these publishers have on the many thousand school districts that we have in the United States?

Dr. FLESCH. Again, I have not studied this in detail. But a school board has to buy books, naturally. The books are bought. As I understand it, textbook publishing salesmen come around, and show their wares. On the strengths of these demonstrations, and so on, they make a choice. There are very large houses, which is half a dozen—just like automobiles, this is what is on the market.

Due to the fact, of course, the teacher has to go with what the material offers, if he has to follow some planning on the basis of a textbook, the school board tells him to use some plan, so the influence of the predominant textbook basal reader series is vast, absolutely enormous.

Senator EAGLETON. To your knowledge, is there any public school district in the country that uses phonics, or systematic phonics?

Dr. FLESCH. As I said, I just happen to have the knowledge that this is true in Rochester, N.Y.

Senator EAGLETON. In Rochester, do you think Rochester does use basic phonics?

Dr. FLESCH. So I hear.

Senator EAGLETON. What about that suburb in Chicago? Do they still use basic phonics?

Dr FLESCH. I do not know. But as I said in my statement, I have not been in touch with these matters. But the Reading Reform Foundation has all these data and statistics, and the list of materials all available. Doubtless, they will give you the data on communities where systematic phonics are used, or Open Court and Lippincott, and so forth. This is all available.

Senator EAGLETON. Lippincott publishes books geared to basic or systematic phonics?

Dr. FLESCH. That is true.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you know of any private schools in the country that use basic phonics?

Dr. FLESCH. Yes; there are a great many, and again, Reading Reform Foundation is the source for this, or would be. I do want to add that of course by now, due to this catastrophe there are a great many cases of remedial reading, and classes, and tutors and teachers, and Mr. Copperman essentially runs this kind of institute.

As I understand it, any work in remedial reading that is being done is based on the decoding process or systematic phonics. That is, if you teach remedial reading, normally what you do is you supply the thing that was left out by the school.

Senator EAGLETON. Doctor Chall, whom you mentioned and cited in your prepared statement, makes this observation in her book, that a good teacher can teach reading with a poor method far better than a poor teacher can teach it with the right method. Could you comment on this statement, and have you given any systematic thought to teacher training?

Dr. FLESCH. I think if you took the two methods absolutely diametrically opposed, and you take a good teacher armed with the sight reading method, published by, say, Scott Foresman, and a poor teacher with systematic alphabetic method, the poor teacher will still win out. Of course, a great deal depends on the difference among teachers.

However, I should say, with great emphasis, that whatever report and suggestions you may come up with at the end of your hearings, and so on, whatever is done to remedy the situation, must always be geared to the poor teacher, because you never know into what hands it will fall, whatever system you devise or suggest.

Like with everything else you have to figure on the person who is not too good. If you happen to have a good teacher in a school

system, well, the children are lucky. But you should not bank on luck.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Doctor Flesch.

Dr. FLESCH. May I add a word?

Senator EAGLETON. Yes, sir, please.

Dr. FLESCH. Since I was called before this committee, and invited to come—I am an amateur student of history, and I have given it some thought—I want to say this with much emphasis. You have a situation here where a great industrialized nation has trouble with teaching beginning reading, the basic skills, which is puzzling. You have the nations of the Third World, the main problem that they have is that they have a great mass of 60, 70, 80 percent of illiterates, and a thin crust of educated people.

It seems to me from studying all of this that we are lapsing back into the kind of situation that the Third World nations are going through, only it is the other way. We are gradually—well, a growing part of our population is lapsing back into illiteracy.

I want to predict that if this goes on much longer, and the initial teaching of the reading method is not changed, and quickly changed, in another 12 years, or whatnot, in the 1990's, this deterioration of basic skills will have reached graduate, college graduate level, and we will be in a situation of some of the Third World nations that have to import educated personnel for running the industrial machine in the country.

Now, there are several example. For instance, we have been reading in the last few weeks about Iran, and there are 40,000 Americans, engineers, mechanics, and what have you, who have now left. The same kind of situation is true, as I understand it, in Saudi Arabia, for example, where they have to import personnel for sophisticated jobs; doctors, engineers, chemists, and whatnot.

The same is true, to cite a third example, at the Ivory Coast, where I understand a great many more sophisticated jobs in society are held by Frenchmen. It is very hard to really face this kind of possibility, that with the great number one industrialized nation in the world. Well, I honestly believe that if there is not a complete direct change in the method of teaching reading, this is what is going to happen. By 1990 we will have to import our doctors and engineers and specialists. It is creeping up.

I want to say this with all emphasis, because possibly this is a convincing argument.

Senator EAGLETON. On that note of prospective pessimism, thank you, Doctor Flesch, for your appearance here today, and for the considerable thought, obviously that you have given to this subject matter throughout the years.

Dr. FLESCH. Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Our next witness will be Mr. Harold Howe, vice president for education and research of the Ford Foundation, and former U. S. Commissioner of Education, from 1966 to 1968.

Mr. Howe, we are delighted to have you, sir.

STATEMENT OF HAROLD HOWE, VICE PRESIDENT FOR EDUCATION AND RESEARCH, FORD FOUNDATION; AND FORMER U.S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

Mr. HOWE. Senator, you asked my predecessors to outline their credentials. I will try to do the same very briefly.

I was educated at Yale University, have done graduate work at Columbia, with a degree in history. I did considerable study in education at Harvard and the University of Cincinnati.

Over the years I have been a secondary school teacher and a junior high school principal. I have been principal of three different high schools, president of a community college, head of a State research institute in North Carolina, and as you said, U.S. Commissioner of Education. I have been involved with the affairs of the Ford Foundation in education for about the past 10 years, 2 of which I spent in India, and the remaining 8 in charge of education programs in the United States for the Ford Foundation in New York.

I have been involved in a good many extracurricular activities in education. I was chairman of the College Entrance Examination Board's committee on examinations for a number of years in the 1950's and early 1960's. I was deeply involved in their advanced placement program, both its design and its original implementation, and served on the American Council of Learned Societies' study that led to the formation of the National Endowment for Humanities. I served on the recent panel of the College Entrance Examination Board on score declines in college board tests. I have been involved in a great many other activities, ranging from helping to start the National Assessment of Education to launching Sesame Street and Children's Television Workshop. I have been a trustee of Yale University and Vassar College. I have spent most of my life fussing around in education.

One thought occurs to me, Mr. Chairman, before I begin my testimony. You could assume from that recital of activities that I have been a member of the education bureaucracy and an educator of somewhat liberal philosophy. Since the person providing the first testimony here today said that 50 percent of the trouble came from bureaucracy and the other 50 percent of the trouble from liberal philosophy, I guess I account for 100 percent of the trouble. Furthermore when you consider that a chairman who admits he is a bad speller is leading me into this testimony, I am not sure that you and I together can produce anything that is going to help the education system. But I would like to try. I will go through my testimony quickly.

Mr. Chairman, I do not count myself an expert on the matters before your committee. Most of what I think about the teaching and learning of basic skills comes from secondary sources and is not the result of personal research on these matters.

Although clearly not an expert, I have read some of the literature on learning, served in a variety of assignments in schools and other organizations concerned with education, and engaged in some work specifically focused on learning problems. Two years ago, I served as vice chairman on the College Entrance Examination Board's special study of the decline in test scores. Based on these

experiences, what I think about the matter you are considering can be summarized in three short statements.

The significance of the much reported decline of learning in American schools is exaggerated and is not as serious a matter as the popularization of it suggests. I am not saying there has not been a decline, just that it is widely misunderstood and overemphasized.

Two, the rush to basic competency testing in most States will not of itself produce much improvement in learning, unless it is accompanied by a number of other activities that will cost additional money. Without these supporting activities, competency testing as a method of improving education will simply hurt a lot of kids, particularly those who are poor, black, and Spanish-speaking.

Three, there are good grounds for Americans to have great pride in their schools and good grounds also for believing that the job done by the schools can be much improved.

In March of 1978, Secretary Joseph Califano of HEW called a national conference on achievement testing at which I was invited to make the keynote address. My remarks on that occasion elaborate these three points, and I would like to ask that a copy of those remarks be entered in the record of this hearing.

Senator EAGLETON. It will be so ordered.

Mr. HOWE. In addition, I would like to submit for the record an article from the November-December issue of Today's Education by Roger Farr, director of the Center for Reading Research at Indiana University, and Bruce Tone, editorial associate for the Reading Research Quarterly. They argue that the evidence from testing about the decline of reading skills is at best contradictory.

I submit that for the record, not because that is the best article on the subject, but because I think your hearings ought to try to bring out that there is genuine disagreement among authoritative and thoughtful people on the subject of the alleged decline.

Senator EAGLETON. The articles will be put in the record.

[The following was received for the record:]

Not for Release
Before 8:00 p.m.
March 1, 1978

TESTS AND SCHOOLING

Address by Harold Howe II
Vice President for Education and Research, The Ford Foundation
at the National Conference on Achievement Testing
Washington, D.C.
March 1 - 3, 1978

We are gathered here at the invitation of Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare Joseph A. Califano, Jr. and in sight of the Congress of the United States and other agencies of the Federal Government to consider achievement testing in the schools. If anyone had told me ten years ago that such a meeting would come about, I would have bet ten to one against it because of the belief that testing in the schools was not the business of the Federal Government. But here we all are--educators, parents, testing experts, civil rights advocates, local, state, and Federal officials, and others.

The reason most of us are here is not really our abiding interest in the theory and practice of achievement testing. We are here because many Americans are deeply concerned about their schools. They think that the schools are doing an inadequate job of helping children to learn, especially in fundamental skills that are the tools of more advanced learning. Whether they are justified in thinking that, no one can say with certainty. But there can be no question about the pervasiveness and strength of the feeling that American schools suffer shortcomings.

The origins of these feelings are complex, and people who agree that schooling needs improvement don't agree at all on the roots of the problems, on what needs to be done about them, or about how serious they are. Using a medical analogy, some think that the condition is like a cold, which will go away if simple remedies are taken; others would call if flu, requiring more serious treatment; and some would put the patient in the hospital for oxygen and strong drugs because they think he has double pneumonia. Because no one really knows what the condition is and because our capacity to measure it is limited, there is some tendency for all of us to behave as if it might be pneumonia. Only then, it is argued, can we be sure that we have done everything possible for a patient that means a great deal to us--our children and our schools.

This conference was called to talk about how the Federal Government's concern for schooling, centered in both the Congress and HEW, can be joined to all the other interests represented here to devise more useful ways of determining what is being achieved in schools. Because Americans are worried about their schools, I want to begin with three broad statements about schools in general before turning to the uses and misuses of tests. Let me warn you that I am more positive about American schools than the general public is. Anyone poised to hear another educational comment flavored with gloom and doom had better leave for a smoke--or a coke in deference to Secretary Califano.

First of all, I think that compared with the rest of the world, schools in the United States are doing a good job. Since late 1968, when

President-elect Nixon suggested I vacate the United States Commissionership of Education, I have had considerable opportunity to observe education outside the United States, as well as at home. While I am aware of special corners of excellence in the schools of Western Europe, the Soviet Union, and other places, I do not know a country with a population as diverse as ours and so tumultuous an educational history that is doing as well as we are. American schools also have many corners of excellence and are delivering a solid job with vast numbers of children. There is much we can learn from schools elsewhere and much they can learn from us; there is plenty of room for improved practice in American schools, and some current evidence that particular aspects of schooling require special attention; but there is no reason to think that American education is in such a perilous state as some would have us believe. In other words, I don't think we have pneumonia, and I believe that treating the patient as if he did could do him unforeseen damage. While test scores have declined on many tests since 1960, some tests report unchanged scores, and others show gains.

Secondly, I call attention to the very great achievement of American schools in bringing into their classrooms almost all the children of almost all the people. We still have a job to do with the handicapped; migrant children are still ill-served; Spanish speaking, black and other minorities still constitute underachieving groups whose needs the schools have yet to meet adequately, particularly in central city ghettos; and the saga of Native Americans in education is long, sad, and unfinished. Recognizing all these remaining tasks, I still say

that the story of American education in the Twentieth Century is one of great achievement. We have built a diverse galaxy of public and private schools; and we have rid ourselves of a legally supported and racially defind dual system of schools. In 1900 about 6 percent of youth finished high school; today the comparable figure is 80 percent and about half of them to on to further education.

Now I am quite aware that finishing high school is not enough. One must also ask, what was learned in the process? That is the question we are raising at this meeting. But as we do so let us not forget that we have forged a broad public commitment to the importance of education in the life of our republic.

Despite some fraying at the edges, that commitment has not really wavered. For evidence look to the current public concern about levels of achievement among students. Americans want their schools to do more than just enroll large numbers of students. They want the students to learn something of value to them and to society. There always will be argument about exactly what should be learned. But there is a powerful concensus that it should include improved capacity to know and use both our common language, English, and the universal language, mathematics. Modern achievement testing is sending out signals that the schools are falling short of these goals.

To keep things in balance, these signals should not be allowed to dim the achievements of the schools in these important skill subjects. If one were able to select at random half a million 18-year olds from 1938 and another half a

million in 1978--high school graduates and non graduates--and give them almost any achievement test, the 1978 group would perform significantly better. The general levels of knowledge, literacy, and skill of today's youth are higher than they were forty years ago, and this is almost certainly the direct result of more schooling and of some degree of success in the schools today with students who were given no opportunity in earlier years.*

On the other side of the coin, if those selected at random in 1938 and 1978 were all high school graduates, the comparison would be reversed, and the students of 1938 would score higher. The high school graduates of 1938 were a select group compared to those of forty years later--about 40 percent of their age group as contrasted with 80 percent now. In the process of adapting our schools to the service of a much broader constituency, with many members who bring to school with them the handicaps of poverty and discrimination, we have taken on educational tasks that the schools are only beginning to learn how to perform.

In attempting those tasks, the schools may well have eroded some of the services they once provided to a more select group, although the record on that matter is confused. For example, the period of greatest change in student graduation rates, the 1960s, was also the period of the expansion of advanced

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* While there is no logitudinal achievement testing record that fully documents the generalizations in this paragraph and that below it, evidence from Army tests, from the Iowa tests, and from other sources suggests that these points are correct.

placement programs and the upgrading of curriculum, particularly in the sciences. These developments notwithstanding, it seems probable that some erosion in school services to the general population may have been the price of moving toward equality of educational opportunity for those who have so long been denied it. I am glad that we have paid this price, although I wish that we had been skillful enough to avoid it.

The task now before us for the remainder of this century is to keep the door of opportunity open for those the schools don't serve well without shortchanging either the new aspirants to opportunity or those who have customarily had it. This is not an easy task, and it will be made more difficult by demographic changes that will bring higher proportions of typically low scoring students to the schools in the years ahead. It is possible that achievement scores will not turn upward and may even decline more, trying our resolution and patience.

My third general point concerns our capacity to move on the two fronts of educational equity and excellence at the same time. Some people call these contradictory goals. They pose the issue as egalitarianism versus elitism, arguing that we cannot have both or that one will always suffer through emphasis on the other. It takes determination and hard work to keep these concerns in balance, but I would hate to see either an elitist or an egalitarian ethic dominate American educational thinking. At worst we should allow the two themes to compete equally; at best we should seek out the ways for them to come together.

One means by which these two principles in American education have been reconciled is the great diversity of institutions we have encouraged, partly by

happenstance and partly by plan. This diversity is especially clear in higher education with its great variety of public and private institutions. In schools the scene is more dominated by the public sector, and the parochial and independent schools are numerically less significant. But they are important just the same. Within the public schools there is diversity in respect to the nature of schools and probably more variety than there ought to be in quality among those with similar missions. This diversity starts with the prerogatives of local school boards and is augmented by the existence of fifty separate state systems. It is powerfully reinforced by the nature of Federalism in the United States and by historical traditions.

Even within the same school system and under one board of education, individual schools and teachers within those schools have important freedom in varying instruction and materials to fit their pupils. Our basic resource for improving quality in the public schools lies in helping teachers and principals to do a better job, and most of them would welcome such assistance. Changes in tests, textbooks, or promotion requirements are secondary lines of action that will not make much difference without the interest and support of teachers.

The presence of the Federal Government in any conspicuous role in the diversity of American schooling is a very recent phenomenon, particularly as a change agent in the schools. National education legislation was powerfully resisted in the 1950s and was accepted in the National Defense Education Act in 1958 under the umbrella of national security. The passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965 was possible because the Act embraced

the diversity of public and private schools and because a formula was found that allowed schools to receive support from Washington in furtherance of important national purposes without imposing uniformity and with great freedom for the schools in how they would meet those purposes.

I review this history because I find in present legislative proposals before Congress for national achievement testing an intent that opens the door to a nationalized school system. Not only is this concept anathema to the traditions of American education; it also holds the clear possibility of reducing the diversity on which depends our important balance between equity and excellence. Federal initiatives can make some contributions to improving learning of fundamental skills, and I will discuss some of these shortly. But it does not make sense to take precipitious action on nationally sponsored achievement testing. Not only would such action alter the nature of our country's diverse education arrangements, it would also be of doubtful use in improving what schools do to build basic skills in children.

The reason that the National Assessment of Education has been acceptable to both states and local school boards is that its policies and activities have been clearly in control of the Education Commission of the States, a creature of the states and not of Washington. Present efforts of HEW to bring more Federal control of the National Assessment through contracting procedures raise exactly the same dangers as the proposals for national achievement testing in the Congress.

I turn now to the challenge of what the several levels of government concerned with education might do about achievement testing. The first fact

to recognize is that much has already been done at state and local levels--some of it perhaps useful and some of it less so. By last September, nineteen states had adopted programs of basic competency testing, sixteen had such programs in a planning stage, and eleven were studying the matter. That leaves out only four states, and for all I know they may have joined the basic competency testing bandwagon in the meantime. Some states, of course, have long maintained a variety of skills tests and examinations in particular subjects. Local school boards have taken initiatives similar to those of states, but I have seen no accurate census of these. For many years, local school boards have sponsored standardized achievement tests. Indeed, it is the record of lower scores on many of these in recent years that brings us together here.

Most of this expanded activity falls under two broad headings: 1) Testing that will give a composite picture at the state and local levels of the language and mathematics skills of students at varying ages in order to evaluate programs or to identify the need for remediation; 2) Testing designed to apply to a particular point of passage in the educational progress of young people, either to qualify them for award of a diploma or promotion to the next grade or to keep them where they are until they demonstrate more advanced skills. There is considerable variation from state to state in what tests are to be used, the ages tested, and other details, a characteristic of the present wave of activity on the achievement test front that I heartily endorse because it continues the diversity from which we have gained so much.

The achievement tests used in the schools fall into two broad categories that testers call "norm-referenced" tests and "criterion referenced" tests respectively. Norm-referenced tests allow you to compare individual children and groups of children with each other on a common yardstick of achievement; criterion-referenced tests allow you to determine whether individual children or groups of children have learned some particular knowledge or skill that is important to the school and measured by the test. The test you take to get a driving license is a criterion-referenced test of basic competency.

The norm-referenced tests have been in general use for much longer and provide most of the achievement test information which is available to the public today and on which public dissatisfaction with the schools is based. The basic competency tests now being designed and used for the first time in some states are criterion referenced tests that attempt to measure certain competencies the state has decided a student should have to get a high school diploma or to reach some other educational milestone. But norm-referenced tests are used also for such purposes. Testers have never been able to achieve adequate public understanding of the meaning and appropriate use of norm-referenced tests, and it is unlikely that they will succeed in doing so for new forms of testing. This is because mental measurement is a highly technical field and also because most people engaged in it aren't very good at explaining it to laymen.

With this brief excursion into testing, I now want to comment on the uses and misuses of norm-referenced tests. The processes that go into their construction and the way their results are reported limit their usefulness in the

front lines of the classroom. Such tests tell you that Johnny in grade six reads at the seventh grade level; or that Miss Smith's fourth grade class has an average reading skill at the third grade level; or that Suzy is at the 99th percentile in mathematics achievement among tenth graders; or that the average sixth grade reading level in Super Suburb is one grade above the norm; or that Hope City has had steadily declining reading scores for four years.

Such information doesn't tell you that Johnny is goofing off in school and much more might be expected of him; that Miss Smith's class is composed mostly of the kids of migrant workers and doing just fine; that Suzy is heading for a nervous breakdown through pressures from her parents to get into Radcliffe; that Super Suburb with a high average family income and 95 percent of its parents college graduates is experiencing a property tax revolt and starving its schools, whose sixth graders should really test at a year and a half or two years above the norm; or that Hope City lost its two largest employers six years ago, an insurance company and an IBM plant, and has suffered an outmigration of skilled workers since then.

While norm-referenced tests have some potential for providing information that can be used by teachers, it is not in convenient form. Mainly such tests take the temperature of the patient but give few hints about the disease or its diagnosis. You have to know a great deal more than the test score to draw any meaning from the comparison it provides. And even if you know enough to do so, you still haven't got information that will be useful to assist Johnny or Miss Smith.

in a speech nicely sub-titled "How Mean is the Median," Henry Dyer calls for "eliminating the idea that a test score in itself tells anything whatever about the behavior it summarizes." *

Indeed the kind of information we have from norm-referenced tests couldn't be better designed for misunderstanding and misuse through public pressures on public policy bodies. Luckily most persons in a position to influence educational policy have moved beyond the simplistic and mistaken notion that all eighth graders should score at or above the eighth grade level on standardized achievement tests, but I still hear this sort of foolishness occasionally from surprising sources. It is the equivalent of saying that all football teams should win at least half their games.

Despite these difficulties norm-referenced tests remain the most widely used types of tests in the schools. Not only are they limited for helping to define solutions to the problems they identify; they are not much use either for evaluating educational programs because they provide little or no guidance on which aspects of a program are working and which are not. To quote Ralph Tyler, "scores on such tests do not show the extent to which students have learned what the schools seek to teach, although many laymen interpret them this way." **

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* Criticisms of Testing: How Mean is the Median by Henry S. Dyer. Address to the National Council on Measure in Education, April 6, 1977.

** Policy Issues in Education, edited by Allen C. Ornstein & Steven I. Miller, Lexington Books of D. C. Heath, 1976 pp. 19-28.

This conference should raise questions about the practice of using norm-referenced tests as gatekeepers to determine whether a student should be promoted. I think its convenience is vastly greater than its accuracy or its fairness. Such tests provide information that is a legitimate part of promotion decisions but only a part. A child has so many other attributes besides his test scores that they should also be considered in any important decisions about him. It is not easy to weigh such attributes as motivation and maturity; so schools in their promotion policies and colleges in their admissions decisions may fall back on the appealing neatness of a test score. If parents really knew how inexact these beguiling numbers really are, they would be up in arms about their frequent misuse. I hasten to recognize in making these critical observations that most agencies making and selling tests try to explain and encourage their proper use. Unfortunately they don't succeed.

NIE should support major research on what are sometimes called the "soft" factors in judging students. These are the non-quantifiable aspects of human beings that must be considered in decisions about them. While they may be non-quantifiable, we can surely learn to use them in more orderly and systematic fashion. In addition, NIE can help to work on the serious problem of public misunderstanding of tests. This task is a never-ending one that requires new and vigorous attention as the use of tests is expanded.

Many of the newer tests and particularly those being developed to measure "basic competency" are criterion-referenced tests rather than norm-referenced. Instead of telling you how a child is doing in relation to other children, they tell

you how he is doing in acquiring knowledge or skill that has been agreed upon as important and that the test is designed to measure. Examples might be the ability to multiply fractions or to write a complete sentence. The National Assessment of Education offers this type of test. Like other types it has problems and shortcomings. Among these is the difficulty of achieving agreement upon what students should be required to know or to do, particularly between educators and laymen. The New York State Board of Regents has been in a recent hassle on this subject and is reconsidering its program of basic competency tests on grounds the tests may be too easy.* One Regent tried the test on his son, who said it was "so easy it was dumb." Let's assume for the sake of argument that the Regent's son is somewhat above average in skills and learning. A test that would really challenge him would eliminate from graduation about half the students now getting diplomas. I wonder if that's what the Regents want?

In spite of such problems, we should continue the effort to build good criterion-referenced tests. If we are to do a better job teaching basic skills to children, we need to improve the capacities of teachers to tune their teaching methods and materials to the needs of the individual child. To do this, we need very different instruments from the usual standardized achievement test, and we need instruments that are carefully made, not hastily concocted from existing

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*New York Times, February 13, 1978 and Editorial on February 20, 1978

tests. So I would strongly recommend more attention to the development of tests to give teachers information with which they can define the learning needs of children and plan instruction accordingly.

There are two corollaries of this recommendation. First, new energies must be mustered by NIE for the development and improvement of testing that really helps teachers in the diagnosis of learning problems. Second, there must be opportunities for teachers to learn more about using tests effectively, particularly as new tests are developed. Congress can act on this front by encouraging the in-service training of teachers. It could re-enact the Education Professions Development Act that was unfortunately allowed to lapse in the mid 1970s. If we had it now, it would be an important tool for teacher training in the use of tests to improve basic skills. If any interest develops in reviving this legislation, it should be specially focussed upon in-service training and should include the training of principals and other administrators as well as school board members.

No amount of giving tests to children will ever teach children to read and write better. The right kinds of tests can help to identify problems and to provide a basis for planning remedial efforts. Also, I suspect that tests which ask kids to produce a correct answer rather than recognize one among a list of wrong answers might be an advantage. But if a change is to take place between a particular teacher and a particular child some change will have to occur in the teacher's repertoire of skills. Federal support to help teachers upgrade their skills and to encourage states and localities to do likewise makes good sense.

I have some concerns about the minimum competency bandwagon that is riding down the main street of American education today. Suppose we are successful in improving our national achievement test scores by warning kids, "You can't enter the ninth grade until you can read at the sixth grade level," or "You can't graduate from high school without eighth grade reading skills." No doubt such pressures will result in improved skills among some youngsters, but what do we do with the children who just don't make it, either because of the shortcomings of their schools or their own problems? Is American society ready to live with a growing number of young persons who are rejected by the schools between age fourteen and seventeen without credentials that will allow them a chance at a job and a decent life? The recent youth employment legislation seems to say no. That law, administered in the Labor Department, launches a major program linking work and education and encouraging young people to stay in school.

There is no question in my mind, however, about the effects of minimum competency testing, as presently conceived, a few years hence. It must have one of three effects--maybe all three at the same time. The schools must become more willing than they now are to hold youngsters in grade and work flexibly and imaginatively to solve their learning problems, allowing them to progress through school at differing rates and with increased costs of school completion for a significant number of students. Or we must develop some alternative form of institution unlike the present schools and more like the Job Corps for those the schools are unable to serve. Or we must all live with the consequences

of a group of young people rejected by our educational system and our economic system and embittered by their rejection in the name of improving educational standards.

The first of these scenarios is obviously the most attractive. It may also be the most difficult to follow because it requires both more money and significant changes in the schools. The second may be worth pursuing, but it too requires added funds and real inventiveness in relating school curricula to jobs. The third is unthinkable, but we could stumble into it through mistaken assumptions about both educational standards and the proper role of the schools and through our inability to muster the funds needed for the first two options.

This meeting should also consider whether tests are in some way unfair to minorities who score lower than the general population. From what I know about the complicated topic of cultural bias, I would say that responsible test developers are acutely aware of the issue and try out test items on varied populations to protect against bias. I have seen convincing evidence, for example, that the Scholastic Aptitude Test of the College Entrance Examination Board is not culturally biased when used for the purpose for which it is intended--helping to predict academic performance in undergraduate studies.

Not only should this matter be continually re-examined, but also test developers should make public their efforts to guard against cultural bias and should subject their testing instruments to independent studies. The National Assessment's use of external public screening committees offers a model for others to consider. Only if such precautions are taken, can we be assured that

the measurements used in schools are fair to all. The past history of mental measurement is not blameless in this regard.

While on the subject of fairness to minorities, I have to raise the difficult question of whether the national mood for improving basic skills performance has hidden within it overtones of racism. There is no simple answer. As Kenneth Clark and others have so cogently argued, we do black children a disservice not to hold them to the same expectations we do white children. At the same time we know that inequalities in the lives of children outside the school are reflected in school performance and that black, hispanic, and Native American children are peculiarly subject to handicaps from both poverty and discrimination. The concept of special additional efforts on their behalf is now a public policy of the United States Government and of the governments of many states. Basic competency testing will certainly result in more educational delays and denials for minorities than for the rest of us. The only resolution of this difficulty I can accept, is a clear commitment by those who advocate basic competency testing to provide at the same time all the special additional services that may be needed to help less fortunate children meet the test requirements.

Before we enshrine the use of testing in legislative and administrative actions we must ask whether we really know enough about the measurement of cognitive ability. When legislators and high-level policy persons start making firm and detailed decisions in highly technical areas they can end up making mistakes. In no sense am I questioning the motives of those who would stipulate testing activities in national or state legislation. Clearly they want to help children by

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improving schools. Yet somehow, as I watch state legislatures legalizing Laetrile as a cancer cure, I can't help worrying about their blessings for certain forms of mental testing.

From what little I know about testing, I am inclined to think that the basic competency movement is rushing schools into wider use of tests, some of which are simply inappropriate for the broad purpose of improving basic competency. It takes several years to make a good test, try it out, and find what validity it has. That kind of effort is not reflected in competency tests that are hastily concocted in response to political directives.

The problems of legislating in complex and rapidly changing fields, such as mental measurement or cancer cures, may require quasi-governmental or private agencies to help us seek wisdom on such matters. The testing field has been the subject of a four-cornered shouting match among testers, teachers, policy makers, and parents in recent years. Some way to reduce the noise and improve the communication might be useful. For example, the National Academy of Education has in its membership many of the scholars whose fundamental work lies behind the tests we now use and those we will design and use in the future. It could be given a much stronger role in advising on the kinds of questions we are considering here. And it might even make sense for the Congress to consider chartering that body, as it once did the National Academy of Sciences, in order to give the Academy of Education a wider reach in educational affairs. In addition, there is a need in the field of testing for continued basic

research on the assumptions that underlie it and the disciplines that contribute to it. This is proper business for NIE and probably for the National Institutes of Health as well.

But seeking dispassionate advice from wise men together with calling for new tests accompanied by teacher training in their use and basic research on testing will not quiet the discontents among us about childrens' reading, writing, and computation. Nor should they do so. Evidence from existing tests tells us that we have to do a better job with fundamental skills in the schools. Recent research argues that almost all children who have the mental capacity to master spoken language also have the potential to master reading and computational skills. Successful projects developed with support of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act suggest that the ingenuity of teachers and principals is equal to the task in some schools, particularly when there is careful planning and continuity of effort. The National Institute of Education found in a recent study of that program that it was reaching its objective of serving disadvantaged children more effectively than in earlier years, and this finding has been matched by a significant increase in the President's budget for fiscal year 1979. * There is hope for improvement in children's learning in these developments. My personal view is that state and national efforts under Title I and similar programs will be more important in making progress than will the contribution of tests. But the two can work together to advantage.

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* The Effects of Services on Student Development: A Report from the National Institute of Education Comparative Education Study, September 30, 1977.

There are, of course, numerous barriers to progress in basic learning ranging from disorder in some schcols to inequitable distribution of the funds for education. The special dilemma of making schools work in urban ghettos cries out for resolution. But these are the subjects of other conferences.

We will not make progress by sloganeering, whether we shout "back to basics" or "forward to fundamentals." We will not make progress by creating scapegoats. People who work in schools are no different from people who work as lawyers or politicians or government officials--a few are indifferent and self-serving; a few are inept; most are trying honestly to do a good job, sometimes against great odds; some are extremely skillful and successful.

The controversy brought on by the back-to-basics movement and the accompanying rapid move to basic competency testing and to wider use of testing for assessment of schools has unfortunately polarized educators and the friends of education. But there is really no essential conflict between improving teaching and learning in fundamental skills and the interest of educators both in developing good citizenship and sound values and in offering to young people opportunities in such areas as art and music. There may be some extremists in the back-to-basics camp who want to use it for the ulterior purpose of cutting education costs by ridding the schools of important acitivites, which they regard as frills. But this is not characteristic of most of the people harboring a concern for improving learning skills. So I return to where I started--we are fortunate in the schools we have and fortunate also that we are dissatisfied with them. I hope that your deliberations will guide that dissatisfaction into constructive channels.

READING

(continued)

What Does Research Show?

Our mass media frequently assure us that today's children are not being taught to read. The charge may be supported by anything from brief interviews with dissatisfied parents to references to marked declines in average scores on tests such as the *Scholastic Aptitude Test* (*SAT*).

Yet, in 1976, sixth and tenth graders in Indiana scored as well on the *Iowa Silent Reading Tests* (*ISRT*) as the state's sixth and tenth graders did in 1944-45. And they did so at an earlier age! With a score adjustment for age, the 1976 subjects markedly outscored the students of 1944-45. The Indiana study which brought out these facts[1] is among several with similar results. (One of us—Roger Farr—was a co-investigator in the study.)

Teachers who have noticed the seeming contradiction between such data as the *SAT* score decline and the other evidence such as the Indiana study are at least a step ahead of the general public, which seems to have accepted the assumption that students don't learn to read as well as they used to. In fact, we appear as a nation to be making vital education decisions on the basis of that assumption. The back-to-the-basics movement and the widespread adoption of minimum competency tests are two of these decisions that can have a serious impact on our children and that are being made without the advantage of careful analysis of all the relevant data that is available on reading achievement.

The data which spark the most anxiety in many critics of today's reading education show a marked 14-year decline in average scores on college entrance tests such as the *SAT*. These tests attempt to predict how well high school students who hope to go to college will succeed when they get there. They determine verbal aptitude by means of questions that measure vocabulary and reading comprehension.

SAT scores, however, are not a good measure for evaluating the reading education of all kinds of students, at all ages. Tests such as the *SAT* are given only to high school juniors and seniors who are considering college, not to all juniors and seniors. Nor are they given to students at other grade levels. Thus the aptitudes these tests measure are at a relatively high level.

Before looking at data that contradict the charge that students today do not learn to read as well as students in the past did, it seems only fair to note a group of studies that might be used in arguing that reading achievement is falling off.[2] These studies matched achievement and aptitude scores on nationally used tests that children at specific age levels from a specific area had attained in different years. They show a trend of rising scores up to the mid 1960's and a decline after that for all grades except the lowest elementary grades; at those levels improvement continues. Six of these are statewide studies like the study in Indiana.[3]

There are, however, state studies other than the Indiana study that contradict these general findings. They show either little difference or slight increases in scores at certain age levels over a span of years.[4] All such studies—whether they show declines or increases—indicate the need for close analysis of societal and educational factors that may have affected the scores. An analysis of these factors, such as the teaching methods used, could tell us a great deal about what we are doing right and what we are doing wrong in teaching reading.

The Indiana study used scores from the *ISRT* test given to 25 percent of each of the state's sixth and tenth grade classes in 1944-45. In 1976, a stratified random sample, consisting of 7,000 to 8,000 students in each class, was tested with the same editions of the *ISRT* that were used in 1944-45. The overall difference in achievement between the two periods at each grade level was slight.

The sixth graders tested in 1976, however, were 10 months younger than the sixth graders tested in 1944-45, and the sophomores tested in 1976 were 14

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months younger than their earlier counterparts. When the scores of students tested in 1976 were adjusted for these age differences, the more recent sixth graders markedly outscored sixth graders from 1944-45 on every subtest and on total score. The adjusted total score and the adjusted scores on all the subtests but one were markedly higher for the 1976 sophomores. They scored the same as the earlier group of tenth graders on the paragraph comprehension subtest.

Several factors may have favored the 1944-45 students in the Indiana study. First of all, the versions of the *ISRT* that were used were certainly more closely aligned to the curriculums of the earlier period, and the students in 1944-45 may also have been more accustomed to the severe time limitations of the tests than the students in 1976. (Most achievement tests today are timed so that a majority of those tested can finish.)

In addition, the sophomore class of 1944-45 was 14 percent smaller than it had been as a freshman class. Dropping out of school has decreased over the years—Census data show that the average number of years of schooling for Indiana citizens rose 4.6 years from 1940 to 1970. In early 1944, many 16-year-olds quit school to go to work in the lucrative war industries. Finally, in the 31 years between the testings, minority student enrollment in Indiana increased from .04 to 11 percent. For some of these children, English is a second language; therefore, they often do not score as well on standardized tests as their classmates.

One factor, however, may have given the 1976 students an advantage: the amount of time reported to be devoted to the teaching of reading in Indiana was 50 percent greater in 1976 than in 1944-45.

There are other studies that show reading education is not less effective now than in the past.

- In a 1978 study, 183 Ohio sixth graders were given a paragraph comprehension test that had been used with sixth graders in 1917. In addition, a 1919 test using five vocabulary words was given to 583 eighth graders. The results on the latter test favored the students of 1919, but the differences were not statistically significant. On the former test, however, which measured both literal and inferential comprehension, the 1978 sixth graders scored significantly higher than the 1917 sixth graders on both components.[5]
- A Florida study shows that the reading ability of college freshmen has improved.[6]
- Perhaps the most extensive and carefully designed study of reading ability in the country is that conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. NAEP tested 63,000 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds on literal and inferential comprehension and on reference skills in 1971 and again in 1975. The achievement of 9-year-olds improved on all three measures. Although there was little change in the total reading ability scores of 13- and 17-year-olds, their achievement improved slightly in literal and declined slightly in inferential comprehension.[7]
- National literacy data also indicate that we are teaching students to read well enough to be "functionally literate." It is difficult to make comparisons from one census to another because definitions of *literacy* change. Yet the percentage of illiterates in the United States dropped from 10.7 percent of the population 10 years old or older in 1910 (6.2 million persons) to 1 percent of the population 14 years old or older in 1969 (1.4 million persons).[8]
- A study of data from three other sources[9] concludes that our schools are more effective than ever in reducing illiteracy.

Some research studies show that reading education is not less effective now than in the past.

The research results reviewed here show that there are no clear grounds for assuming that students today cannot read as well as they would if they had been in school some 25 years ago. What all these studies taken together indicate is the need for more research comparing extant reading scores from earlier periods with the scores contemporary students make on the same tests. Such studies should reveal whether students today actually are reading less well than their counterparts in earlier years or whether, as the Indiana study shows, they are reading better.

Accompanying research should compare possibly relevant societal and educational factors from the periods sampled to see whether they can explain any differences in achievement that are found. In the Indiana study, for example, we might learn why the 1976 students had higher scores—for their age—than the 1944-45 students. An analysis of teaching methods predominant in both periods might explain why

the unadjusted scores in 1976 were notably higher on reference-type skills or why the unadjusted scores of the 1976 sixth graders were higher on word meaning, the same on sentence meaning, and lower on paragraph comprehension than those of their 1944-45 counterparts.

Age difference in samples should be accounted for. Data on retention could reveal how much additional school experience the greater age of earlier samples represents. The more thorough the exploration of possibly related factors, the more plausible will be any suggestions for improving reading instruction that are inferred.

The advantage of making decisions about reading education on the basis of such research rather than of unsupported assumptions should be clear. Yet, as noted above, we are now moving back to the basics and proliferating minimum competency tests on the basis of assumptions for which the evidence is at best contradictory.

Back to the basics in reading instruction seems to imply a focus on single words and on linguistic units smaller than words. The rationale is that by mastering letter-focused, syllable-focused, and word-focused skills, the beginning reader will learn to put together the meaning of sentences and paragraphs.

As it concerns the content of reading, back to the basics can also mean exposure to approved "classic" ideas and styles deemed to be essential to the educated person.

In contrast, a developing consensus among reading educators has led to methods which stress whole ideas as expressed in sentences and larger units. Phonics and word-focused attacks are not ignored—particularly at beginning levels—but the overall emphasis is on the interrelationship of words and ideas.

Such an emphasis has been compatible with choosing the content of reading materials on the basis of the background and developing interests of the individual child. This approach does not eliminate the classics from the curriculum. It does contend, however, that when young children learn to read with materials that expand their own interests, they will not only decide that reading is a valuable activity but will also be more responsive to and capable of comprehending the classics when they later encounter them.

If the back-to-the-basics movement reaffirms the place of phonics, for example, and of the classics in an eclectic approach to teaching reading, it is defensible. If, however, it means an overemphasis on skills at the expense of ideas and of making reading an activity that corresponds to the child's experience, it can convince a generation that reading is a tedious and useless activity. And if the rationale for the back-to-the-basics movement is the assumption that other teaching methods are less effective than a narrow skills approach, the proponents of the movement should be challenged to affirm beyond doubt that such is the case.

That we are reacting as a nation to the assumption that our children are not learning to read very well is most evident in the fact that half of our states have adopted some form of mandatory minimum competency testing. Often such tests are designed to measure skills (including comprehension) that are isolated from ideas. In this way, the trend to minimum competency testing and the back-to-the-basics movement are linked.

Whether or not the achievements such tests measure are intentionally limited, the tests must attempt to measure in minutes the accomplishments of from one to 12 years of learning.

Students in states that have adopted such testing have no choice but to make acquisition of the skills that the tests stress a basic concern. And their teachers are forced to teach to this immediate need. If the tests fail to stress broad understanding of what is read, the teacher and the child may give interpretative reading skill low priority.

A minimum competency test is not likely to measure whether children read critically. And no test can measure whether children synthesize what they read into their developing concepts. A test cannot judge whether children enjoy the magic of books and the lessons books provide. It cannot present children with real situations to see whether they can use the information and ideas they read about in their everyday activities. Teachers can, however, judge these things and teach children to incorporate reading as a useful and enjoyable habit—providing they are not increasingly bound to teach to the impersonal test.

Some teachers of reading may welcome the ultimate simplicity of a legislated standard that tells them very specifically what they are accountable for teaching. It can, for one thing, take much that seems nebulous out of professional self-evaluation. After all, how can one record the flash in a child's eyes that represents new understanding, that identifies an observation that the child thought was peculiarly his or her own, that shows a child has recognized that someone else has been afraid or has doubted? One can't show that to the school board, the state legislature, or the critics.

What, then, can teachers who value the teaching of reading as a whole experience do in the face of criticism based on elliptical interpretation of test results? How should they respond when minimum competency testing or a narrow approach to teaching reading are required?

First of all, teachers can keep abreast of the literature on comparative reading achievement as well as on methods of teaching reading. They can challenge

unfounded assumptions about children's "inability" to read in an effort to inform fellow teachers, parents, and other decision makers. They should also, of course, make it clear that current methods are not as successful with some students as teachers would like them to be—that the search continues for more effective approaches. Finally, teachers can cooperate with responsible researchers who want to develop data that compare performance or seek to reveal factors significant to reading instruction.

Teachers can also examine the procedures for constructing minimum competency tests that will be used in their districts. They may be able to get involved in constructing the tests to be sure that they emphasize—as much as possible—the skills teachers believe represent reading. In short, teachers can try to ensure that the tests reflect the curriculum (as tests should) so that they do not have to restructure the curriculum to the tests.

We do not believe that tests should determine the curriculum. If a test measures the objectives of the curriculum and students do poorly on it, the test may bring about change *in instruction*. This is an appropriate use of testing. The problem lies with using tests to change the *curriculum* itself. As we have noted, tests cannot measure, for example, what reading really is in terms of idea growth and affective reaction. Consequently, if tests are allowed to dictate curriculum, important objectives will be ignored because tests can't measure them. This is a misuse of testing.

Curriculum change should come from careful analysis of experience and data from many sources, including valid testing. Teachers and researchers must work together with all concerned citizens to accomplish this and to make reading education more effective. □

Notes

1. Farr, R.; Fay, L.; and Negley, H. *Then and Now: Reading Achievement in Indiana (1944-45 and 1976)*. Bloomington, Ind.: School of Education, Indiana University, 1978.

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 14-15. See also Harnischfeger, A., and Wiley, D. E. *Achievement Test Score Decline: Do We Need To Worry?* St. Louis, Mo: CEMREL, 1976.

3. Farr, R.; Tuinman, J.; and Rowls, M. *Reading Development in the United States: Then and Now*. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1974.

4. *Ibid.*

5. Wray, M. *A Comparison Study of the Reading Achievement of Sixth Grade Students in 1917 and Eighth Grade Students in 1919 with Sixth and Eighth Grade Students in 1978*. Master's thesis. Bowling Green, Ohio: Bowling Green State University, 1978. (Unpublished)

6. Larson, J. J.; Tilman, C. E.; and Cranney, A. G. "Trends in College Freshman Reading Ability." *Journal of Reading* 19: 367-69; February 1976.

7. National Assessment of Educational Progress. *Reading in America: A Perspective of Two Assessments*. Denver: the Assessment, 1976.

8. Cash, W. C. *Adult Literacy Education in the United States*. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1977.

9. Fisher, Donald. *Functional Literacy and the Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1978. (ERIC ED #151760)

Mr. HOWE. While there may be disagreements about whether our schools have deteriorated, there is no reason for disagreement about the importance of doing the thinking needed and providing the resources required to help the schools do a better job. Here again I would like to disclaim special expertise and provide in oversimplified form a listing of what I think needs doing to improve schools, whether you think they are good, bad, or indifferent. Call these if you will Howe's 10 commandments for improving fundamental learning:

One, put more time, effort, and money into helping teachers contend with their difficult task. Good teaching is far more difficult to achieve than is commonly understood. It is an amalgam of knowledge about methods and subject matter, experience in using them, and patience, emotional balance, and good sense in dealing with young people. It is not easily learned or easily taught. Today's teachers face special difficulties because we have committed ourselves to educating all children rather than using the schools as devices to reject a large percentage of them and because the stresses of today's society are reflected in the schools. Because of the shrinking enrollment of schools the teaching force will have relatively little turnover in the years immediately ahead. Carefully developed, on-the-job training programs are of paramount importance if the main source of learning in the schools—the teacher—is to become more effective. Every school system and every school should have a plan for upgrading the effectiveness of teachers and the basic resource in such plans should be the cadre of very skillful teachers now existing in the schools. Federal money for this purpose would be well invested, particularly if it elicited matching funds from States and allowed great freedom to schools in planning what they do to help teachers.

Senator EAGLETON. I was rummaging through Mr. Copperman's testimony trying to find the figures, but he made a statement that will help. And he said—here it is: "What caused the decline? A lack of money? Hardly. During the past 15 years our national education budget more than quadrupled, growing from $36 billion in 1964 to over $150 billion this year."

You are saying put more time, effort, and money.

Mr. HOWE. Into this particular field.

Senator EAGLETON. Into the teaching of the basics in elementary and secondary system?

Mr. HOWE. Into the retraining of teachers and school principals. I remind you, Mr. Chairman, that there was at one time a piece of legislation passed by the Congress called the Education Professions Development Act. It was allowed to lapse some years ago. It was a rather comprehensive commitment by the Federal Government to provide resources for training all the levels of personnel working in the schools of the country.

In my view, at least, it was a useful piece of legislation, which was not in being long enough to allow our diverse nonsystem of education to learn how to use it. So I think in this year's reenactment of the Elementary and Secondary Act, where you have made certain provisions for helping out with teacher training, you have done something that parallels that previous constructive legislation, but I do not think it has the scope that is needed.

I would suggest reexamination of that earlier legislation.

I will go on, if I may.

No. 2, invest in the retraining of school principals. The evidence is overwhelming that schools succeeding with children who are hard to teach are schools with skillful and committed leadership. If helping teachers to learn the art of teaching is a difficult task, that of altering the thinking and behavior of school principals is an even more elusive enterprise. But it can be done, and investing local, State and national funds in it is a sound proposition. Many principals need help in effective supervision of teachers as well as in developing support from parents for the learning objectives of the schools. Many principals do not know enough about the complexities of teaching reading and mathematics.

Senator EAGLETON. I am really backtracking to point one. Respond to this. There are in some of the bigger cities of the country, teachers colleges. For instance, in my own home city of St. Louis, there is what is called the Harris Teachers College. High school graduates of the St. Louis city school system enroll in Harris Teachers College, and then after 4 years, get an AB or BA in education, and by our methodology then are guaranteed, subject to vacancies being available, a teaching assignment in the St. Louis city schools.

There are some who argue that the graduate of that college has, or that some graduates of Harris Teachers College have, marginal skills insofar as reading and writing is concerned, and ergo, once they obtain teaching assignments, are teaching the next generation.

I do not think that is unique to St. Louis. I think several other cities have some kind of teaching college institution.

What do you have to say about that?

Mr. HOWE. I do not know Harris particularly.

Senator EAGLETON. In general.

Mr. HOWE. It is true that throughout the country, not just in cities, but in the major State institutions, wherever they are, you find schools of education with emphasis on training teachers.

In the years ahead, because of the declining enrollment in the schools, the training of new teachers will be a tapering off activity for them except for certain special fields where the supply of teachers is inadequate. What they need to do, it seems to me, is to seek a role that not all of them have developed adequately, which is to become a resource to the retraining of teachers in the schools.

In doing that, I suggest that they think first about how they can make their staff, their knowledge, their expertise available in the schools of St. Louis, rather than having teachers come to them. I think there is a great advantage in making teacher training available on the scene in the school with children present.

If you can have expert persons on either subject matter or methodology finding out about where problems are, getting immediate feedback to teachers after a class about those problems, and working in a team with the teachers about issues in the schools, there is real hope for improving learning.

Senator EAGLETON. You were on point No. 3, at the bottom of page 2.

Mr. HOWE. Point No. 3, enlist the community—parents and others—in understanding the teaching and learning objectives of the school and in providing support for them. In schools that can claim support from most homes for what the school is trying to achieve, there is unlikely to be a serious problem with teaching and learning in the basic subjects, particularly if parents and school staff have worked together to establish both sensible objectives and sensible procedures to attain them. The competition between TV and homework requires an alliance between home and school.

Senator EAGLETON. I like the way your testimony is laid out It lends itself to interruption. I guess if we had Mr. Copperman testifying on this point, he would say, well, Mr. Howe, that is all well and good for you to suggest that you try to get the parents more involved. That is a noble, pious objective that has always been looming around out there, but it is do-gooders like you, Mr. Howe, that have made that process inoperable because of busing and other things which have "destroyed" the neighborhood schools.

I am not sure Mr. Copperman would say that—let us assume anybody says that—how would you respond to that?

Mr. HOWE. I would say, first of all, that there are very few parent groups that have advocated busing, but that is just a comment on the question, rather than an answer. The only large scale citizens group advocating busing that I know anything about, has been in the city of Seattle, which has done a very interesting job in looking at itself, deciding that there was indeed racial isolation in the schools of the city, and without a court requirement or other compulsion put together a city plan for desegregating the schools.

I do think that your fictitious question asker would be right that there has been some unconstructive interference by citizen groups and parents in the schools. But my judgment would be that the predominant influence of well planned parental interest and activity in schools is to improve the schools. Where people use their positions as advisory persons in the school or for political opportunism, rather than helping kids, as has happened in some decentralized school districts, the effect are negative. But normal activities of parents in the school such as parents being informed by the school staff what school objectives are so they can reinforce them at home, parents getting enough involved so that they know what expectations for homework and can raise questions about the problems for dealing with those expectations, and parents providing volunteer help with various school activities are very constructive. I think we need more of these rather than less. At the same time, we need to recognize abuses by laymen entering into public schools and getting in the way of teachers.

As for busing and its relationship to neighborhood schools, I have just two comments. The Constitution of the United States requires that public schools be desegregated. Where the courts find that discrimination exists, this requirement takes precedence over the desire for neighborhood schools.

Going ahead with point four. Invest in the development of new types of testing. New testing instruments are sorely needed by teachers, particularly tests that will help them to search out the weaknesses of individual children. Standardized achievement tests,

so common in today's schools, are not very useful for this purpose. All they do is compare the performance of a youngster with others in his grade without revealing what sort of help he needs. Diagnostic testing that locates gaps in knowledge and skills needs much more attention. Its development should be coordinated with the training of teachers in its use.

Senator EAGLETON. Ford is the biggest foundation in the country, and your specialty is education——

Mr. HOWE. My specialty is not testing, however.

Senator EAGLETON. Then, for instance, there is, in my home State, a very fine foundation called the Danforth Foundation, from the family of my colleague in the Senate. They focus entirely on education. They are not into any other fields, solely on education.

Are there not moneys available from these great foundations to do the kind of test development that you call for? And if so, why has that not been done already? Someone might say, do we have to reinvent the wheel today?

Mr. HOWE. There are some moneys available for it. We are spending some money on it. Several professors at MIT happen to be working on some new mathematics testings for the schools, with our support for their work.

I believe also that the same professors from MIT are getting some help from the National Institute of Education, or some other Federal source. The full development and checking out for reliability and validity of a total new system of tests is an extremely expensive operation. It is probably beyond the resources of private agencies to do the full job that need to be done. But I quite agree with you, it is appropriate for private agencies to be in on the cost of this. We are, to some degree already.

The Carnegie Corporation, another private foundation in New York City, is interested in this same subject, and has put substantial funds into it, probably more than we have in the Ford Foundation.

Senator EAGLETON. Within the development of new testing—would you carry it as far as even testing the teachers themselves?

Mr. HOWE. I am not fully informed on the subject of testing for teachers. There are, of course, national teacher examinations and various teacher examinations that some school systems use. What bothers me in the use of testing for selecting teachers, or students for that matter, is that you are very likely to create what are called cutting points. That is, some arbitrary test score is decided upon as a requirement for being a teacher or admitting a student. The chances are that such a practice will damage numerous people.

Test scores are only approximate measurements. They are in no sense exact. Test experts know this and warn against their misuse. I would favor testing particularly for professionals in education who have significant subject matter responsibilities, but not for the purpose of deciding whether you are going to give them a job or not or fire them, but rather for the same purpose that I favor testing among kids, to find out what they need to know and give them guidance in going to find it out. Tests might be useful in teacher retraining activities to identify weaknesses. That kind of testing for teachers would make some sense to me. But I do not see a great deal of utility—indeed I see real dangers—in highly mecha-

nistic testing procedures for admission to the teaching profession. As I noted earlier, good teaching is an amalgam of skills and knowledge and personal characteristics. No one knows how to test for many of these attributes.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you concede in today's political climate of increasing suspicion at all levels, especially of the Federal Government—where there is anxiety about obtrusiveness and expansiveness of Federal bureaucracy and Federal intervention in what has been traditionally the local decisionmaking process—that it would be unwise for the Federal Government to invest funds in the development of the new kinds of tests that you suggest because that would, to many people in the country, be a very, very frightening thing for the Federal Government to embark upon?

Mr. HOWE. I see nothing wrong with the Federal Government investing funds in the development of tests as long as it invests them in a multiplicity of sources. If the Federal Government were to support a single test to dominate the country, I would be powerfully opposed to it. But mental measurement experts across the land disagree with each other like experts in other fields. The Federal Government should support a cross-section of such parties as long as they appear to be responsible. The Federal Government has contributed over the years to curriculum development. As long as there is a variety in that activity, I see no great danger. But I see tremendous danger in the idea that the Federal Government would have a single course in American history and tell us what we are all supposed to think.

Point No. 5. Provide schoolchildren with lots of interesting books to read. One way to improve reading skill is to read a lot, just the same as any other skill. We should increase the supply of good children's literature available in classrooms and distribute more free books to children in poor communities.

I believe that this recommendation is allowed for to some degree in the new elementary, secondary legislation that you have passed.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Flesch would not disagree with you in making more good books readily available. I guess no one would disagree with that. But part of what he says is that one of the problems we have today is there is a superabundance of textbooks by a wide variety of publishers. They update them about every year or 2 years, and you have to buy a whole new set.

Are there some risks involved in your recommendation No. 5, although very plausible on its face?

Mr. HOWE. If you are transferring that observation to the world of textbooks, I think the Congress can be useful in limited ways in keeping the textbook publishers up to snuff, but it should certainly avoid even the appearance of proscribing what is to be put in textbooks. While it may call attention to problems, the remedies reside outside its jurisdiction. I recall a set of hearings held back in 1966 by then-chairman of the Education and Labor Committee of the House, Adam Clayton Powell, in which he brought the textbook publishers in and read them some of the material in their books. It purported to describe the American historical experience. Some of these books were designed to sell in places where interpretations of the Civil War experience differed. Clearly history was being altered to fit the predilections of the regions of the country about what

happened in the United States. That kind of thing ought to be ventilated, but is clearly inappropriate for legislation.

On the basic skills front, Federal research grants might legitimately raise questions about whether textbook publishers have indeed reacted to the best research on reading. And at the same time it must be recognized that there are dangers about quick reactions in such matters. For example, take the field of mathematics. In the late 1950's, early 1960's our schools experienced a new fad about what should constitute the mathematics curriculum. Self-appointed experts appeared, mostly from universities, with ideas about the nature of what you and I used to call arithmetic in schools and the way children should learn it. In retrospect I think that the textbook publishers responded too quickly and suddenly flooded schools with materials that were questionable. Teachers were left behind by the sudden shift, as were parents, and today's judgment appears to be that at least some of the new materials were more comprising than useful and may have caused a regression rather than an advance in learning.

I would keep the pressure on to keep publishers aware that they have an obligation to keep up with what is known and thought on a sensible basis about the way things should be taught, but I would be wary of the dangers involved.

My sixth point is to develop student record systems that will help schools to teach highly mobile students more effectively. Families in the United States are on the move, but schools seem to assume that the youngster in grade one will continue on through grade six in the same school. The chances are he or she will not. Also, many highly mobile families are poor families with a combination of problems with income, health, and the law, as well as with schooling. For such a population we need much better descriptions of each child's attainment in different subjects and skill areas that can follow a youngster from school to school and reduce wasted time and effort in education through mistaken placement of young people.

Senator EAGLETON. How do you square that statement with your statement on page 1 of your prepared testimony where you sort of pooh-pooh or downgrade competency testing?

Mr. HOWE. I am not saying that the material that would go with the youngster should be solely the results of testing. It should carry information about what books he has read, subjects studied, about the kind of in-school grade he has had, about things that had been tried to improve his learning that have or have not worked, and a variety of other matters. If there are test scores, I think those ought to accompany him.

This passing on of information disturbs some people because they claim that youngsters will be forever tarred with the brush of their mistakes in school and that the people in the school to which a student goes should not be led to assume that because he was a troublesome pupil before, he will continue to be. But most people who handle these matters in schools are professionals, and they know how to handle them. They do not label Johnny as a bad apple simply because an incident that gives insight into his character is described. They really want to help him, and to do so they need to know about him.

Senator EAGLETON. On Item 6, you say "each child's attainment in different subjects and skill areas." What would be better for the receiving school when the family moves from Missouri to California for example? What would be more helpful to the homeroom teacher in California, a transcript from the sending school that Johnny got a B in reading, or would it be helpful that he got B in reading and a score that follows on such and such Iowa test, or whatever?

Mr. HOWE. The more information the better. I think there are delicate problems of interpretation when you get into behavioral issues and attitudinal issues, but that can also be information that will help a school to serve a youngster, along with academic information.

Senator EAGLETON. I am not trying to espouse competency testing, but it does seem to be the trend in more and more States. It is like any trend. It can be overdone, I am sure.

Mr. HOWE. Let me say on that that I am not trying to say that competency testing is something intrinsically bad that ought to be abolished. I am saying, however, that simply giving such tests, and particularly giving them toward the end of high school and doing nothing else is unconstructive. It will say to a lot of kids, "you cannot have a high school diploma." Then what are you going to do about them? They still belong to society. In the name of preserving the standards of the diploma, you will place added barriers to employment opportunity and augment antisocial behavior.

If I were going to introduce new forms of testing of that nature, I would introduce them early enough so there is a chance to be responsive about what the tests showed, to prepare the readiness of individual youngsters. I would look for additional funds for this purpose.

Simply saying at the end of grade 12 we are going to give you a test, and that will decide whether you get a diploma or not, having been around the school system for 12 or 13 years, that does not seem to me particularly useful. If the presence of the test brings changes in the system, that is a gain. But is it fair to flush a generation down the drain while we're waiting for this to happen? There must be a better way.

No. 7, put a new emphasis on writing in the elementary school curriculum.

There are many reasons for the neglect of expository, descriptive, and creative writing in elementary schools—including the demand it places on teachers. The teacher retraining activities I mentioned earlier should assist teachers with making writing an active part of a child's education and with techniques of assessment that help children improve their writing. Among these should be enlisting children in criticizing their own writing and that of others and enlisting and training volunteer parents to help with writing assessment. I submit for the record a brief piece on writing entitled "Balance the Basics: Let Them Write," by Donald Graves of the University of New Hampshire.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me say amen to that. Ninety-nine percent of the testimony we have had this morning has been on reading. We have had two very distinguished experts in the area of reading, Mr. Copperman and Dr. Flesch, and now yourself, Mr. Howe.

The Eagleton theory on education is that however alarming or unalarming may be the decline in reading scores—Mr. Copperman thinks it is very alarming; you do not point in that crisis-like direction—I believe in writing skills. Just based on my subjective evaluation of things submitted to me, college graduates, people with master's degrees, et cetera, the decline in writing skills is very disturbing. I do not have any quantified study. Writing just does not lend itself to exercised tests and what have you, I guess. We will get into that, I am sure. I find more and more these are bright people, graduates of prestigious colleges and universities, frequently with advanced degrees, who do not know the first thing about punctuation, sentence structure, paragraphing, and it causes me great personal concern.

Mr. HOWE. I agree with you. I just point out that putting more emphasis on teaching of writing skills is going to make more work for everybody—the kids, the teachers, the people at home—and the only way to get it done is to pitch in and do it. Incidentally, a survey of teacher-training programs that is mentioned in this pamphlet I have given you points out that, out of 169 teacher-training programs, only 2 offer specific programs for teacher training in how to teach students to write. Interesting if true. This fellow, Don Graves, used to write for Time-Life, and he has become a professor of education. Quite a switch.

Senator EAGLETON. What do you do with the dilemma that in many homes in this country the writing skills of the parents may be marginal at best. You said in your preceding answer something to the effect that everybody has got to pitch in, including the people at home. How do you enhance writing skills if the parents themselves, across the whole racial spectrum, are less than adequate writers?

Mr. HOWE. Well, if you get them interested in the subject, it is surprising what can happen. But I haven't got any easy answers for that one.

No. 8. Build a better connection than now exists between research on learning and practices in the classroom. This is a major mission of the National Institute of Education. I think it is beginning to show some useful and important results, and Congress would be well advised to reauthorize NIE and build its budget. In connection with building a better bridge from learning research to practice, I think we need more understanding than we have of the mistakes children make in the process of learning and of ways to use them for promoting better learning. What teachers do with a child's wrong answer is probably one of the central questions not getting sufficient attention in either research or practice. I suspect that more knowledge about this matter is fundamental to better mastery of mathematics by children as well as of other fields of learning. Professor Christopher Jencks of Harvard, argued in a piece in the Washington Post for February 19, 1978, that the problem in the schools was not one of inadequacy in basic learning but rather one of mastery by students of many more complex ideas, concepts, and skills that are required in our more complex society. I suspect that more thinking along this line would be useful in turning the oversimplifications of the back-to-basics movement into constructive channels.

No. 9. Make sure that time in school is not wasted. There are many thiefs of time inside the American school, just as the TV steals time outside of it. Youngsters attend irregularly; bureaucratic procedures interfere with teaching and learning; some teachers are sloppy in their use of this valuable commodity; we have gone wild over vacations and holidays. In 10 years of schooling, Soviet youngsters get as much learning time as Americans do in 12. Schools and parents can get together to tighten up this situation. Equally important is the recognition that some children need more time to learn certain skills and knowledge than other children, and we should find ways to adjust the school's schedule to provide such children with additional time for learning. This will cost more money, and it is worth it.

No. 10. Promoting greater equity in the provision of public money to schools. It is hard to prove with finality that spending more money on schools produces more learning. There are some good schools with low per-pupil costs and some not so good schools with high per-pupil costs. But the weight of evidence suggests that large discrepancies in per-pupil expenditures are significant and that most low-cost schools do less well by their students than most high-cost schools. It is a fact that American schools vary tremendously in their expenditures per pupil, and it is a reasonable judgment that most youngsters in undersupported schools are getting shortchanged. In addition, it is a fact that the children of low-income families get more than their share of undersupported schools. State by State, across the United States, these firmly established inequities are being challenged by court action or by legislative initiative or both. For encouraging the improvement of learning over the long haul, it is important that this process continue.

Finally, Mr. Chairman, let me express a general viewpoint about the controversy that has emerged in the United States concerning the effectiveness of our schools. It has brought with it, as do most controversies which cast doubt on important institutions, a search for scapegoats—persons who can be held responsible for whatever it is that some people find wanting. Distinguished thinkers ranging from John Dewey to Dr. Spock are charged with corrupting America through excesses of permissiveness.

In my view there is little point in these charges. We need to remember that philosophers, psychologists, and medical doctors are still in the early stages of discovering how children learn and that early explorers in this field have established some very important concepts. Among these are the following:

One: Children learn better when they are strongly motivated to do so rather than when they are regimented without regard to motivation.

Two: Children learn in different ways, and it is important to find how a particular child can be helped to learn, rather than assuming there is one method for all.

Three: Children may go through roughly similar processes of development, but they do so at different times and at different rates—a factor for which schools must adjust.

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Four: Children learn in school a great variety of attitudes and values that are as important as the basic skills, and the teaching of the basics must be attuned to enhancing these values.

I hope, Mr. Chairman, that your hearings will help our schools build on these and other elements to produce a generation more literate and more thoughtful than ours.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you think it would be a proper role for the Federal Government, through the appropriation of money, to somehow encourage advanced work by teachers in such basics as reading, writing, and mathematics? I have nothing specific in mind, but something to help teachers get more advanced skills in the teaching of reading and to help teachers that may have a writing defect or shortcoming?

Mr. HOWE. I think that Federal support for that kind of thing would be useful. Let me go back to my earlier remark about the importance of doing this sort of thing right in the context of the school and observe that many school systems have salary schedules which are adjusted to giving teachers more pay for taking additional credit hours at a university. I think we need exploration of ways to use those credit hours more efficiently and effectively than often they are used. They are frequently used in rather mechanical fashion by a teacher who goes and takes a course, not because it is a course that the teacher will find specially useful, but because it comes at a convenient time or is otherwise appealing. We need to plan within the school for what a teacher requires in the way of retraining and help teachers in seeking the kind of assistance that you suggest. A mechanistic system of credits to qualify for additional salary without adequate guidance for teachers won't do the job. I realize that that is not a completely fair description of the situation in many school districts, but it is a fair description of what actually happens in some of them.

I advocate Federal funds to encourage advanced work by teachers in both methodology and subject matter. The motivation provided by moving up on salary schedules for such work will be more useful if it includes the element of emphasizing retraining activities right in the context of the school where the kids are.

Teaching is something like playing tennis. You can watch a movie of it, and you can see Jimmy Connors, and you can read about it. You will not be a better tennis player as a result. You have to get out on the court with somebody who is better than you are to achieve that. If you are in a classroom with a teacher who is more skillful than you are, watching that teacher teach, or if you are a teacher and that teacher is watching you and gives you ideas about how to be more successful, you learn. That is why I am pushing especially for teacher retraining in the context of the school. I think it is an art and not a science, and an art has to be practiced, not just read about.

Senator EAGLETON. The use of remedial teacher, the expert in remediation, that teacher ought to be used, I take it, in both to help upgrade the skills of the classroom teacher in addition to allotting some time, I guess, directly with students in need, but maybe more on the former, that is more on upgrading skills of the teacher.

Mr. HOWE. If you look at the economics of it, you are absolutely right. I think you are right also about the ultimate effects.

Senator EAGLETON. You mentioned in your chronology of your background that you served as vice chairman, College Entrance Examination Board Special Study of the Decline in Test Scores.

Was that the Willard Wirtz Commission?

Mr. HOWE. Yes; he was chairman of the commission.

Senator EAGLETON. I think somewhere along the line we will hear from Mr. Wirtz.

I take it the thrust of your testimony is to try to be cautionary but not alarmist and not to unduly decry.

My recollection, when the Wirtz study came out, many editorial writers and editorial commentators found it to be a bit more disturbing than you apparently do today or as comes through in your prepared testimony.

Mr. HOWE. I think there are some real problems. I think Mr. Copperman was right about identifying a particular concern for able students. One of the studies done for the College Board panel identified a decline in the proportion of students scoring over 650 or 700 on the College Board tests. That is a legitimate concern. I think we need to face up to it. Some of the points he made in regard to that are quite valid.

We did, I think, dilute some of our educational practice in the United States as we took into the schools in recent years a large proportion of persons who had not been there before. Our high schools particularly moved over a relatively shorter period of time from having about 50 percent of an age group finishing high school, to where they are now with between 75 and 80 percent of an age group doing so. In this process the schools took in the children of poor families and took in the children of minorities, and they took in addition the children of persons who spoke other languages particularly Spanish. We placed a great deal of emphasis on adapting curriculum and teaching to working with these groups of people. We probably did dilute to some degree what we did on behalf of the more gifted and more fortunate.

But if I had to choose between doing the job I have been describing and just going along doing business as usual and denying the opportunity of high school to the minorities and the poor, I would come down on the side of saying let us take those unserved people into the schools, and let us learn how to teach them. We are still about the business of learning how to teach them. We have not fully learned how to do it. We have all sorts of recommendations and ideas. Some of the programs that have been developed in connection with Elementary and Secondary Education Act, title 1, have begun to show interesting models of success with so-called disadvantaged youngsters. Indeed there is some evidence that this characterization of "disadvantaged" is a misnomer. There's nothing wrong with these youngsters; more of the problem resides in the schools.

What needs to be done in schools is to use a variety of materials and methods that will be challenging to students wherever they are in the learning process. There is no sense in confronting a youngster who is learning at 6th grade level with 12th grade material. He would not know what you are talking about. He needs to

be challenged by requirements he can succeed with. But you have to avoid shortchanging the able youngster who is in the 10th grade and who is reading 3 years ahead or at the college level; you need to challenge him, too.

There have been some very interesting programs for gifted youngsters in American schools during this time of declining College Board scores. The advanced placement program of the College Board, requiring high levels of academic skill from high school students, has expanded rapidly in the 1960's and 1970's—a fact which doesn't seem to fit with the decline of high scores on College Board tests. I don't know how to explain this.

I will close by saying that, within the concept called individualized instruction, challenging each kid—very tough to do, easy to talk about—lies the objective we are all reaching for.

Senator EAGLETON. Do your comments indicate that you support the concept of open enrollment in schools of higher education that CUNY experienced?

Mr. HOWE. Yes, particularly at the community college level. It seems to me that this country has benefited tremendously from having really open institutions, beyond secondary school. The community colleges particularly have tended to say to anybody, "We will take you where you are and help you with something that you either need to know or want to know so you can get a better job." That openness has meant a tremendous amount to all sorts of persons, particularly in the cities.

There is some silly business going on in some community colleges, but the extent of it is, I think, miniscule compared to the volume of really significant and useful activity to a great variety of people, some of whom never went to high school.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you care to address yourself to the testimony of Dr. Flesch in this dispute, for lack of a better word, between the teaching of phonics versus sight word?

Mr. HOWE. Well, I have read Dr. Flesch's book that came out in 1955 and have been wondering about it ever since. I know Jeanne Chall whose work he commented on. I think your panel would do well to visit with her. My reading of her analysis would have a slightly different shading than what he mentioned, but I could be wrong about it because I have not reread her analysis now for some years. My reading of her study was that word recognition which seems to defeat some youngsters was successful for some youngsters and really moved them quite rapidly, but only some of them. Other youngsters needed a more systematic, supporting approach to build their reading skills, of which the emphasis on phonics that Dr. Flesch is talking about would be one example.

If I recall correctly, she outlines in her book other possibilities but sees phonics as a significant supporting element for helping the child deal with incongruities of the English language. From what little bit I know about it, I am not a researcher on this, I think that it is probably right that many children do need support of some systematic method such as phonics. But this does not mean that word recognition should be abandoned.

I am reminded, that my friend, Sir James Pitman from the United Kingdom, developed a 43 letter alphabet which was absolutely consistent in pronunciation and spelling. You could teach

children this 43 letter alphabet and then they did not have to confront incongruities in learning reading. Everything was consistent. He tried it out in a couple places in the United States, and it worked pretty well. But then you had to teach youngsters to change from the 43 letter alphabet to our 26 letter system. Sir James claimed that was relatively simple and could be done. There are numerous people with oneshot formulas for handling the reading problem. I doubt that we know enough to buy one formula. I do not. Dr. Flesch knows a lot more about this subject than I do, but I'd be wary of accepting his views on the ultmate solution.

Senator EAGLETON. The final question is this. The British have a system wherein, if there is an agonizing public issue, the Prime Minister using the office of the Queen maybe, convenes a Royal Commission and they develop a white paper. They use it from time to time, not at the drop of a hat, not just on every question somebody may ask, but only if there seems to be national concern about an issue. They use this methodology to try to bring together the best schools of thought and come to some conclusion so as either to lay anxieties to rest or to say that these are disturbing and that certain things ought to be done.

If we had such a system, would your own doubts about how well we are teaching basic skills and how well they are being learned cause you to want to have a Royal Commission or white paper on it?

Mr. HOWE. Well, Mr. Chairman, I figure you are it and that your hearings are going to produce the judgments we require. I do think that a detached, thoughtful overview of the set of problems that now is creating controversy about schools is needed and important. I welcome these hearings. I do think the schools are being hurt by the controversy, that there are enough doubts placed in citizens' minds about schools as a result of controversy to damage the school and limit the opportunities of children. People say, we cannot find out what is going on in schools. Why support them?

I think some of the failures of bond issues and tax levies for schools come from that source, although some comes from other sources such as the proposition 13 disease.

Senator EAGLETON. I think that is a very valid point. Thank you.

Mr. HOWE. Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me ask Mr. Copperman if he would care to comment on this question raised by Dr. Flesch on phonics.

You are a specialist in the teaching of reading skills, et cetera. Have you read the literature on this and come to any conclusion?

Mr. COPPERMAN. Yes; I do not think Dr. Flesch will welcome my testimony.

I have read all these books he has brought with him. I work with junior high school youngsters, high school youngsters, and colleges students, many of whom have severe reading problem. I have spent a great deal of time looking at the issue of the effectiveness of phonics instruction as opposed to other methods of instruction. My conclusion is that Dr. Flesch did a very real service in 1955, because the look and say method had almost completely usurped the use of phonics as an instructional methodology in the major basal reading series at that time. I do not however agree that the adjustments in basal readers in the late 1960's, which were based on his

charges and Chall's research, have been merely cosmetic. I am somewhat familiar with most of the basal reader series he listed, the ones he put in the good pile, which he thought used systematic phonics, and the ones he put in the bad pile, which he called cosmetic phonics.

Is my judgment that a couple of the readers he has in the systematic phonics pile, the good pile, are some of the worst basal series readers on the market. I have a friend who is a district evaluator in a school district. He has run evaluations on some of those basal reader series. It is a chaotic district; they get a lot of Federal funding and they have to try different programs all the time. He has tried to keep track of the various reading programs by running computer analyses of the test score improvements of children who have used these different basal reading series that Dr. Flesch has listed. His findings are that a couple of the phonics programs that are listed in Dr. Flesch's testimony are, in fact, no better or, in some cases, worse than the basal readers listed as only having cosmetic phonics.

My own feeling, is that elementary school teachers who use basal reading series published by a major test publisher will get pretty good results if they follow the directions in the teacher's manuals. I think the upturn in scores in kindergarten, first, second, and third grade, can be attributed partially to that.

One of the biggest problems in the elementary schools is the movement away from basal reading series, the idea that what is important for teachers is to love kids. If you love them enough they are going to learn how to read. Basal reading series are under attack. Some people say they lack phonics, others say they are sexists or racist, and some say they are capitalistic or whatever. A lot of teachers have actually just abandoned them They do not use basal reading series. This, I think, is quite dangerous. I do not think they have the training or knowledge to teach without basal readers. Other teachers are just plain sloppy, and some do not have supervision. They use the series but do not follow the directions in the teacher's manual.

When associates of mine who do more of this kind of work than I do work with teachers, they try to get them to follow the directions in the teacher's manuals. That is a hard thing to accomplish.

I do not want to denigrate Dr. Flesch's contribution. We are still reaping the benefits from it. But we have to be willing to look at educational research. We just cannot make judgments off the top of our heads. You just cannot say that everybody knows that skills are down. Everybody does not know these things.

For example, when I wrote my book, I was running into a lot of functional illiterates in my own reading institute in California. As far as I knew, this problem was restricted to San Francisco or San Jose, Calif, where I worked. Perhaps we had always had the same percentage of illiterates, or perhaps it was only happening in northern California. I felt I needed to do statistical research to try to find what actually had happened before I made any kind of public statement. I am convinced that things did not get worse after 1925. I am convinced that things got a heck of a lot better between 1925, thirties, forties, fifties, and early sixties. I think the decline only started after the mid-sixties, and every piece of statis-

tical evidence I have seen indicates that children at the early grades have better skills than they have ever had before. I think if we are going to try to develop an accurate picture of what happens in education, you have to give credit where credit is due.

That is where I think it is due.

Senator EAGLETON. Since we have the benefit of you in sort of rebuttal, let me just read you the three principal concepts of Mr. Howe's statement and get your comment on them.

One, "The significance of the much reported decline of learning in American schools is exaggerated and is not as serious a matter as the popularization of it suggests."

Mr. COPPERMAN. I am surprised at that. He was coauthor of the study by the College Board which concluded that between 1963 and 1970, about 75 percent of the decline in test scores was attributable to the change in the population of children in the school. But virtually none of the much more severe decline in achievement indicated by the SAT decline between 1970 and 1977 could be explained by the changes in the school population. The Commission and Dr. Howe, concluded that most of that deterioration could be attributed to the kind of things I presented in my testimony. So, to have the Vice Chairman of the Commission which came to that conclusion say that score declines are not significant is a contradiction. He is a coauthor of the report. Now, he is disclaiming its conclusion.

Dr. Howe and I come from different places in the education profession. He is really a representative of the education establishment. His perspective is very defensive. He is saying, let us be calm, let us not get excited, things are not as bad as some people, like me, claim they are. He is trying to shield the public schools from criticism.

My perspective on this is that the education industry is the biggest industry in the United States. It spends over $150 billion a year. It is my experience that most people, including most legislators, deal with this industry with the same kind of naivet with which they dealt with the military before the debacle of Vietnam. We need to start scrutinizing the statements of people in the educational establishment with the same kind of vigor, the same kind of skepticism, with which we look at statements by the military. The education industry is bigger than the military industry in this country, and Dr. Howe is one of its principal spokesmen, both in his positions in the Federal Government and with the Ford Foundation. He is compelled by the evidence to agree with some of the things I presented. It was not total disagreement. There was a great deal of disagreement in tone. When you help run a $150 billion a year industry, which is being put on the table for examination, you will make the kind of defensive statements he made.

Senator EAGLETON. Second, "The rush to basic competency testing in most States will not of itself produce much improvement in learning unless it is accompanied by a number of other activities that will cost additional money. Without these supporting activities, competency testing as a method of improving education will simply hurt a lot of kids, particularly those who are poor, black and Spanish speaking."

Mr. COPPERMAN. He is really erecting competency testing as a straw man, and then striking it down. This is the principal argument used by opponents of competency testing. You administer a bunch of tests. You are going to show some kids do not function. Testing does not teach skills, so you have not gained a thing.

The point is, the necessary teaching will follow from the scrutiny that occurs when competency test results are published. If a lot of students score poorly, public opinion will Force greater attention to basic skills instruction. In fact, poor, black, and Spanish speaking kids will most benefit from these tests, because the remedial instruction will be directed to help them. I would like to comment on his point 9 or 10, that by and large better schools spend money and schools that are not functioning very well spend less money.

I do not think that the bottom line in education is money. The bottom line is the authority relationship between the teacher and the child, which comes about as a result of the essential authority of the institution in the eyes of the children and the eyes of the parents.

Senator EAGLETON. The third precept, I think you really answered in terms of your answers to the first two, but if you want to add something, that is fine.

"There are good grounds for Americans to have great pride in their schools and good grounds also for believing that the job done by the schools can be much improved."

Mr. COPPERMAN. I agree with that. It is still possible in virtually any public school in this country to get the best education that is available anywhere in the world. But it is only possible. It should be more than just possible; it should be required.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Copperman. Thanks to all of the witnesses. They have been very, very patient and very, very helpful to the committee.

This will conclude this session.

Thank you very much.

[Whereupon, at 1:40 p.m., the subcommittee adjourned, subject to the call of the Chair.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

MONDAY, MARCH 12, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES
OF THE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Florissant, Mo.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 9:30 a.m., at McCluer North Senior High School, 705 Waterford Drive, Florissant, Mo., Senator Thomas F. Eagleton, presiding pro tempore.

Present: Senators Eagleton and Pell.

Senator PELL. This hearing of the subcommittee will come to order. Today we are addressing an issue central to our education process: How to teach basic skills to our children. We are aware of evidence indicating the deterioration in the essential facets of teaching. The 95th Congress addressed this growing concern through the Education Amendments of 1978, which authorized a basic skills program designed to assist State and local schools to expand and improve their basic skills programs.

I am glad we are here in Missouri today so that I can be with a close colleague and friend, Tom Eagleton, who is the very father of the basic skills program. You know the phrase, a prophet is without honor in his own country. Well, I would say that it is not quite that, but a prophet is with little honor in his own State or country. I don't think you realize the respect and honor and prestige that Senator Eagleton enjoys in Washington and with his colleagues in the Senate. That is exactly why he is chairing this subcommittee meeting and I wanted to come here today and pay tribute to him.

The impact on education of your Senior Senator has been tremendous. He is one of the most dedicated members of the subcommittee and is tireless in his efforts to improve the quality of education. He fathered the National Reading Improvement Act that became a part of the 1974 Education Amendments enacted by Congress. That program focused on improvements that could be made in the teaching of reading skills. His basic skills program, enacted in the last Congress, expands the Reading Act to focus on all of the basic skills. He has authored legislation to expand the impact aid program to include children who live in public housing and has worked to see that funding for the public housing provision is guaranteed.

And he cosponsored the Middle Income Student Assistance Act last Congress and worked to see that funds for this act, so essential to families trying to finance a college education for their children, were allocated.

These are just a few of the programs with which your senior Senator has been involved. But not only does Senator Eagleton

create programs, as he does as a member of our Education Subcommittee, but he also funds them as a member of the Appropriations Subcommittee. As you know, we in the authorizing process create ceilings which we rarely achieve, but the real guts of the matter is to be on the Appropriations Subcommittee dealing with this same subject. When the Appropriations bill is completed, you then know the amount that you will have to spend. You are particularly lucky, and I only wish that my State was as lucky as yours, in having a Senator in both the authorizing and appropriating process. This you have in Senator Eagleton.

Thus, I am very happy to be with you today and can think of no other Senator with whom I work more closely on these education matters, not only education, but education, arts, and humanities all wrapped up in one ball of wax. So, in deference to him and in admiration for him, I will ask him to conduct the hearing and turn over the intangible gavel to Senator Eagleton.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you. My thanks to my colleague, Senator Pell, the chairman of the Education Subcommittee, a very distinguished man in his own right. May I say that when I went to him with the notion that we should have a series of nationwide hearings on the basic skills—reading, writing, and math—he was immediately very, very receptive. I might say that most subcommittee chairmen would not permit a member of the subcommittee to conduct a series of hearings such as this. Most chairmen say, "Well, if it is going to be done, I insist on doing it myself, in my own name, in my own right,—" et cetera. Claiborne Pell is a very distinct and unique member of the Senate in the fact that he wants to get the job done. He thought there was a need for these hearings and he was kind enough to let me hold them.

The successful education of our children is crucial to the vitality of our Republic, and in my opinion, these may be the most important hearings that I have ever participated in during my career in the Senate.

I am grateful, of course, to the Ferguson-Florissant School District, particularly to Superintendent Brown and his staff—and he will testify in a few moments—for making this really a remarkable and attractive facility available to us. This is, I think, the first time in the history of the country that we have had Senate hearings in the round.

Today's hearing is the second in a series of hearings we will hold this spring and maybe into the early summer to examine the scope of basic skills achievement or the lack thereof, and to determine how the Federal Government might help those schools improve the quality of instruction in these basic skills.

There is little doubt in my mind that a basic skills achievement problem does exist in this country, scholastic aptitude test scores reflect this—they are already in their 14th year of decline. Other tests and surveys have found that as many as 13 percent of America's 17-year-olds are functionally illiterate. They are unable to cope with everyday tasks such as reading a newpaper, following written job instructions, or taking a driver's license exam, for instance. Studies of our general population have found that 11 percent of high-school educated Americans are illiterate. Functional illiteracy runs as high as 5 percent even among those with jobs at the

professional or managerial level. Back among school-aged Americans, we find 40 to 50 percent of our students reading below their grade levels.

This problem is serious, although hardly new. I recently reviewed the results of a then and now study comparing reading skills among St. Louis public school students over a 22-year span. The test scores revealed that the later generation of students outperformed their forebears in grades two and three, but that from the fourth grade on the earlier generation was way ahead in reading ability. That study sounds like it might have been reported on the front page of this morning's Globe. In fact, the study to which I refer was completed 51 years ago.

The longevity of the basic skills debate testifies to the absence of a facile solution. But if there is an answer to those problems, I firmly believe it will be found within the local schools. That is our reason for coming here today—to listen firsthand to the problems encountered in the classrooms by the teachers, superintendents, pupils, parents and the education research community.

During its last session, Congress authorized a new basic skills program as a part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments of 1978. That program is designed to support both States and local school districts in expanding and improving their basic skills education programs. The focus of today's hearing, and others that we will have in subsequent weeks will be to define the most appropriate assistance the Federal Government can provide to local educators. I think we are tentatively scheduled to hold additional hearings in Boston, Detroit and Chicago. In order to create a real impact with a modest sum of Federal money, we must establish clear understandings of the nature and extent of your problems, of the various approaches you have taken to deal with those problems, and the applicability of your solutions to other learning situations across the country.

I come into these hearings with no chips on my shoulder for or against any particular educational theory, except for one that I think all of us in this room share: That education always will need the care and attention of those who want to help it get better and better. I have no specific new legislation in mind as a goal of these hearings. I foresee no quick fix solutions to declining basic skills achievement; and I have no disposition to see things either as any better or as any worse than they actually are.

I will count these hearings as a success if they can give the American people and the Congress a clear and balanced view of the current basic skills achievement situation in our schools, and if they provide practical wisdom and operational guidance for those who will administer the new basic skills title of the ESEA amendments.

For me, personally, the inclusion of that special section on reading, writing and computing skills was a very satisfying, in fact, a very proud, achievement. It represents the first time that all three skills have been addressed by Congress in specific education legislation. I look forward to maximizing the effectiveness of this new program in any way that I can, and I hope these hearings will be a vehicle toward that goal.

Once again, I thank my distinguished colleague and the chairman of the Education Subcommittee for his coming to my home State of Missouri and for his willingness to permit this series of hearings to go forward.

Our first witness will appear very briefly to give us a word of welcome and then will be reincarnated a little later as a witness on the substantive matters before this committee. I would like to call on Dr. Warren Brown, a long-time friend of mine, for 20 or 25 years the superintendent of the Ferguson-Florissant District where we are this morning for these hearings. Dr. Warren Brown.

Dr. BROWN. Mr. Chairman, Senator Eagleton, ladies and gentlemen, it is a distinct pleasure for me to welcome the Senate Subcommittee of Education to the Ferguson-Florissant School District and to McCluer North High School for this hearing on what is to all of us an extremely important subject matter.

I, like you, believe that the future of this Nation depends upon an enlightened citizenry, and I certainly agree with you that we must maintain a minimum level of proficiency in our educational programs of all kinds for all students.

Senator Pell, in your chairmanship of this committee over the years, you have demonstrated a concern for excellence in education. We know of your reputation and we respect it very much. I had the opportunity last March at the testing conference to hear your speech in which you again expressed that high expectation of excellence on behalf of all schools, public and nonpublic. We appreciate your dedication as educators for that very important cause.

Senator Eagleton, you know that for many, many years we have worked together in the cause of education. I can remember when you were Lieutenant Governor. And at that time, one of your first, and I think one of your most important public contributions was as the chairman of the Governor's conference on education, a series to two conferences. The result of those conferences, which were statewide in orientation, was to focus the attention of all people in Missouri on the improvement of education. Senator Eagleton, you have led the way in a program which I can report succeeded in greatly improving the financial structure for education and many of our specific educational programs. Ever since that time, in your public service, you have demonstrated a concern for a high level of public education, for a high level of skills for all young people, and I agree with you that it is the underpinning of our democratic system.

We welcome you here, I think that our deliberations today will help in a very significant way to create a better America.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Warren.

Our first witness is Dr. Arthur L. Mallory, the commissioner of education of the State of Missouri. Dr. Mallory.

STATEMENT OF DR. ARTHUR L. MALLORY, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, STATE OF MISSOURI

Dr. MALLORY. Senator Pell, Senator Eagleton, thank you for coming. I appreciate the opportunity to be here and to say some things about Missouri public education. I share with you and some of the statements that both of you have made in the press and other places, the concern that we as a nation must have with

reference to basic skills. Basic skills are necessary, obviously, to a strong educational program. It is difficult to enjoy a high school history class without being able to read at a literate level. One can't enjoy chemistry without being able to figure the simple equations, use simple arithmetic. This is something, of course, which is of national concern and we agree that it is of national interest. It is of State concern and of State interest.

Perhaps my best effort here this morning, Senator Eagleton would be to simply call to your attention some of the things that we in Missouri are trying to do with reference to basic skills and not to try to develop some solutions, because that is what you are going to be trying to do. But I am sure that you want to know about basic skill activities in your own State, and I know Senator Pell would be interested in knowing of some of our efforts. I will try to be brief.

Before I brag about some of the things that we are doing in this State, I am not unmindful of the concern that we have in the teaching profession and that the public has with reference to basic skills. As I go around over the State of Missouri, I am aware of the fact that we feel that we need to get back to the basics, that we feel that we need to do something more in reading and arithmetic, and we feel that something has happened to us and that we have lost some of our former ability to handle basic skills. I think we need to keep in mind that it is probably fiction to believe that there was any time, at least in Missouri education, when everybody was a scholar. In 1900 in this Nation, we were graduating approximately 4 percent of the students from high school. In 1940, we were bringing something under 40 percent of our Nation out of high school. In 1978 or 1979, the statistics nearly doubled so that about 70 percent of our Nation's young people were graduating from high school.

I think that we had the impression several years ago that everybody is a high school graduate, that everybody finishes. That is just not true. Keeping these young people in school beyond the eighth grade, beyond 16 years of age, has caused us to have to deal with an additional kind of population. Let me be personal just a minute. When my parents were graduating from the eighth grade, only those good in the books—and I am sure this is a true statement—only those good in the books went beyond the eighth grade. Those who went to high school were pretty bookish. And those who went beyond the high school tested out very well. That was an earlier population, but of course, not very many of the people were available to be tested.

Today, we have everybody available to be tested. That is just a personal statement, but I can substantiate that in my own family. In this period of time, we recognize the essential nature of education. This hearing in St. Louis today gives evidence to the importance that we feel we must place upon public education.

Here in Missouri, we feel, as do our people in Congress, the importance of basic skills. Let me just refer you to some of the things that we have tried to do, and Senator Eagleton, you are aware of some of them, but I will call them quickly to your attention.

In 1976, the State board of education had the feeling that it was necessary for us to make a major effort in basic skills, it became one of our top priorities. So we began to develop some items which we felt would be helpful and useful to us. One of the things that we developed was a basic check list for tutoring instruction and suggestions. I have copies of these items if you would like to have a copy of them.

We developed a statement entitled, "Twenty-Five Ways That Parents Can Help With Reading." We developed a basic essential skills test, which I will mention briefly. Several activities books which are helpful to teachers in those areas. We developed an ITV guide, an instructional television resource guide, for utilizing television available in the State of Missouri and coding it to our basic essential skills test.

We developed a number of other items, one having to do with word lists, one having to do with a list of books which young people can read, sort of a great books series for children in K through eighth grade. We are now in the process of trying to develop a statewide reading guide, which will be of assistance to the public school teachers; and a statewide writing guide is being developed to assist public school teachers in the area of writing, trying to improve our writing skills. The reason that I mentioned this, I feel that it is important for the State board of education to be interested in this area. I feel that it is necessary, however, for the State board of education to recognize that our interest should be in the area of leadership, inspiration and encouragement, but clearly, it is the responsibility, as you mentioned earlier Senator Eagleton, to take care of this matter at the local school district level. And of course, that is the only place that it can happen. It has to happen in the classroom with a group of youngsters and their teachers.

In the State of Missouri, we are now in the second year of a basic essential skills tests. We are testing all of the eighth graders in the State of Missouri this year on a mandatory basis, in three areas.

Let me just enumerate what they are. Several years ago, we made the statement in the State board meeting that we felt that at least by the time a youngster finishes the sixth or eighth grade, he ought to be able to read at a literate level, he should be able to handle the English language in written and spoken form, ought to be able to write and speak a good paragraph. The youngster should be able to figure simple interest, handle arithmetic, ought to know something about the governmental process which will help him to become a better citizen, and ought to know something about the economic persuasions which are important to us in our society. We have expanded the basic skills in this State to include not only reading and arithmetic, but also government and economics at that level.

So we devised a test; we empaneled several hundred people in the State of Missouri to develop a basic essential skills test. We have validated each item on that test until we think that it is one of the best in the Nation. In fact, large testing companies tell us that the basic essential skills test does test what it is purported to try to find out, and that it is a good test.

We gave it last year to about 60,000 of 76,000 eighth graders on a voluntary basis. He have about 76,000 eighth graders in the State

of Missouri, 60,000 of these kids took the test last year. We scored the test, got the information back to the school districts on each student tested.

The district there has a test score for each student for each objective tested. The score indicates whether the student has mastered an objective or not mastered it.

We found out a number of interesting things. We found out that in the State of Missouri last year, 89 percent of those taking the test were able to read at a level which was acceptable for passage. We found that in the area of arithmetic, we were down a bit lower, about 67 percent of the young people taking the test could handle the arithmetic. We found also, something which surprised all of us. We found that 70 percent of our youngsters were able to pass the government and economics test. Now, that pleased us very much, surprised us a good deal in some areas, because I think some people felt that that many youngsters would not be able to read at a literate level. We were able now to say to people in the State of Missouri, with all of our difficulties in public education, we do have youngsters that are able to read.

We have many improvements to make. And as you listen to superintendents from various school districts, and as you listen to parents, you will get a feeling about how things are going in Missouri schools. I know you will get a cross section of attitudes. But on a statewide basis, we are doing better I think than we thought that we were doing in the area of basic skills; not good enough though. We would like to have mastery in these basics, and we need to keep in mind that the basic essential skills test of ours, is not a matriculation examination for leaving high school. There is much more to education than just basic skills. But without these basic skills at about the fifth, sixth or seventh, or at least the eighth grade level, a youngster will have a difficult time with his high school education and will probably be a guaranteed dropout; in fact, I suspect if we were to go down early in the grades and find some of the youngsters who are not doing a good job, we could pretty well isolate our future dropout at the second, third, fourth or fifth grade levels. We need to check with these kids who do not feel comfortable with basic skills. This is a very essential thing for us to keep in mind.

We believe that we are going to be able to make improvements on our test scores. It is my hope that we will be able to go above the 90 percent passage on reading, above the 67 percent passage on arithmetic, and above the 74 percent passage on government and economics.

Now the question is, is it a good test? The question is debatable. The question is, should it be more difficult? Probably not for basic skills, if we keep in mind what is basic what is fundamental. Is it going to provide any magic in the State of Missouri? Are we going to be able to do better as a result of the test? Not as a result of the test, but as a result of our calling it to the attention of the rest of the State of Missouri, I think we are going to focus attention on basic skills, in fact, we have for several years.

Now, with reference to the Federal role, of course, I think it is important for us to keep in mind at the national level the importance of basic skills. Obviously, the Federal Government cannot

take care of this; obviously, the State government cannot take care of this. I think that it is our responsibility to see that the local school districts have the money to take care of this. The right answer will not be the same answer in every school district. There is no way for it to work that way.

I believe the Federal Government could have an impact in overall basic skills improvement by making a minor change in the title I ESEA Act. At present, title I ESEA is limited to educationally deprived children residing in low-income attendance areas. If the law were changed to enable the school district to use its title I money districtwide on the basis of education deprivation, the district would be able to provide additional help to all youngsters needing special assistance in basic skills instruction regardless of where they reside in the school district.

At the present time in Missouri ESEA money is about $45 million, going up to about $50 million. If we had more flexibility in that area to utilize that money as the superintendent of school's discretion, I think that would be a major assist in this whole area of developing basic skills.

The state of the Union and the State of Missouri is not too bad. The state of basic skills is improving. But let me quickly acknowledge, we will have youngsters graduate from the eighth grade this year and then go on and graduate from high school who will not do well in the books. That is embarrassing to those of us who are teachers, we are sorry about that. But I believe that through our statewide efforts, in what we are trying to do at the present time, we are making improvements.

You and I, Tom, might be able to remember together the Governor's conference and the special interest that you had in vocational education. You as chairman brought Mr. Swanson in and we developed what was referred to as the Swanson report. It was the result of that statewide effort that vocational education finally came into its own.

I am mindful of the fact—and this is something that bothers me a great deal—that many of the great educational efforts in this country were not developed by local school administrators or State officials, and that is unfortunate. Nationally vocational/technical education was a Federal effort, the veteran program was a Federal effort, special education was a Federal effort. I could go down the list and name a number of things that have happened in public education as a result of Federal effort, not as a result of local or State initiative.

I trust that we as local and State educators have grown up on this thing and it will not be necessary for the Federal Government to show the way on improving basic skills. I hope that we can get a grip on this thing at the State level and not have to rely upon too many Federal initiatives to show us why and how we need to take care of basic essential skills. This is something that we need to do at the local level, I know that you recognize that and agree with me. Thank you very much for letting me visit with you.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Arthur, very much. As is true in all occasions, you make a very able and competent witness and strong and good advocate.

A couple of questions.

Dr. MALLORY. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. I was fascinated at the outset when you gave us the testimony that in 1900 4 percent graduated from high school, by 1940 you said about 40 percent and then in 1978 there were 70 plus. Why is it that these statistics in the 1950's and 1960's by which time I would assume 60 percent or so of the people graduated from high school—why do you think there has been the down turn on the SAT scores in the mid-1960's or whenever that thing starts to arc downward?

Dr. MALLORY. Everyone has an opinion about this and mine is just an opinion, but based upon some observation, personal observation. I was graduated in 1951, 5 of us out of 60 went to college. I think the big deal in southwest Missouri in this small, rural town was to get a job in Kansas City with Hallmark Cards. Times have changed. When I went back to my alma mater as president in 1964, we had grown from 1,600 college-age students to about 3,400 that year. Before I left 7 years later, we had about 9,000 students. Everybody thought that the thing to do was to go to college. And we made ourselves available to the testing programs.

Now I don't believe that our national population has become less intellectually able. I think that we have not only grown taller and stronger, but we also have more potential. I guess maybe the great zeal to go on to college has made us place ourselves available for testing, and those who didn't get with it in the earlier years of the high school program decided to take the test, and consequently, one of the biggest and most rapidly growing programs that I had in Southwestern State University was our development of reading programs, which we probably should not have funded at all. With our open enrollment, I guess we just had more students trying to move themselves into the program.

Dr. Charles Foster is here from our staff, and I might—do you mind if I ask?

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Foster?

Dr. MALLORY. Charles, do you recall the scores on the Ohio psych? That would be an interesting set of scores over the years, have they declined over the years?

Dr. FOSTER. No, they have not declined in Missouri. They had gone up. We haven't taken the Ohio psych in the last couple of years because it has been discontinued. But we were having to go to new forms periodically. Each time we had gone to a new form, the scores had substantially increased in Missouri.

Dr. MALLORY. That is a test that most seniors took.

Dr. FOSTER. About 98 percent of the seniors took the Ohio psych.

Senator EAGLETON. What is that test? The Ohio psych?

Dr. FOSTER. The Ohio psychological examination. It is a college appitude test and it measures math and verbal ability; the same type of instrument that you are talking about with the SAT.

Dr. MALLORY. Charles, come on down for just a second if you don't mind so that they can pick you up on the recording.

Senator EAGLETON. Is this Ohio psych test the one with the greatest longevity and track record and greatest usage around the country?

Dr. FOSTER. It has the greatest longevity in Missouri. It has been used in Missouri since the late 1930's.

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Senator EAGLETON. Why did you discontinue using it and go to the BEST test?

Dr. FOSTER. They are two different tests. The Ohio psych, like the SAT. It is a college appitude test, which is not really a basic skills test. We were giving that in Missouri and the schools had set it up across our State through the University of Missouri for admission to that institution, originally. The seniors took this, many of them not to go to college, but it was a requirement. We had an overall score here of students.

Now the SAT has been given a long time also, but it was given to a few students, basically, in the beginning to those that were going to the Ivy League universities and colleges. Then as college attendance became a more predominate movement among our students, it meant that more and more of them took the SAT. We have moved from about 4,000 students taking this test to just a great number.

A couple of other things have happened that I want to mention to you. There is an advance placement program that is a part of the college board, and the students that take the advanced placement program in high school do not take the SAT. Because of this, the upper group of scores is reduced. You see, they don't take it. While they are in high school, they are taking the advance placement program. Then they go directly into college and they are never recorded on a SAT. This in and of itself actually lowers the scores somewhat.

Senator EAGLETON. Frankly the person who got me interested in this reading, writing, and math business years and years ago was Dr. William Kottmeyer, one of the predecessors of Bob Wentz, the superintendent of the St. Louis public school system. He hasn't been feeling well, as some in the room know, but we hoped that he could be with us today. I remember that he told me at one time, and this is a general quote, not his exact words, that unless you begin to get a handle on this reading business around the fourth grade, the chances of making great improvements rapidly diminish. By the time you get to the 9th, 10th or 11th, it's super difficult. Those are not his exact words, but the gist of what he said. If that be the case, why is our test here in Missouri given at the end of the eighth grade? Why aren't we testing even earlier on at the second, third or fourth grade level? Dr. Mallory? Dr. Foster?

Dr. MALLORY. Let Charles answer.

Dr. FOSTER. We have tests that start in kindergarten. Then we have a first grade test that is a screening battery for reading. This screening battery is to see if we can test in the fall and predict where a youngster will be at the end of first grade in reading. We are about 85 percent accurate in this prediction with this fall testing.

Now the reason that we entered into this was to find out why, if those youngsters that had gone through the normal screening program, and were still in the regular classroom, but for some reason, they were not able to read. We have found some that are falsely identified, some that are positively identified.

But the point that we had in mind was that the school would do a diagnosis on any child flagged—predicted to be as much as 3 months behind in reading by the end of the first grade. Here's

what normally happens, and you are exactly right and Dr. Kottmeyer was too, if a youngster is 3 months behind at the end of the first grade, if there is no special intervention, he is going to be 6 months behind at the end of the second year, and by the third year, they take on the characteristics of a retardee——

Dr. MALLORY. When in fact they are not.

Dr. FOSTER. They are not really retarded. And they think that they are dumb, they have met with frustration and failure for some 3 years.

It was our belief that if intervention could occur early—during the first grade rather than waiting until they become diagnosed as in need of remediation, we could successfully decrease the need for remediation for many of our students. Now we have a fourth grade test in reading and math, they list 30 objectives each, it is criterion referenced. We have provided this to the schools. We are currently developing a second, third and fifth grade test in reading and math. This will be available to all the schools this fall. We have a sixth grade test in reading and math that has been in use for about 3 years. It is a norm referenced and criterion referenced test that provides a comparison against the national norm for the students, as well as providing information about how well each student performs on specific instructional objectives.

We have a test program in the earlier grades.

Another reason we gave the BEST at the eighth grade, is this is the time that reading as an academic subject ceases. We thought this would enable local schools to identify youngsters still in need of developmental reading.

Senator EAGLETON. Now you are developing the second and third grade tests, the fourth grade is in place.

Dr. FOSTER. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Now Dr. Mallory's testimony was that 60,000 students out of 76,000 take the eighth grade BEST test.

Dr. FOSTER. Right.

Senator EAGLETON. How many are taking your fourth grade test?

Dr. FOSTER. About 40,000 have taken it.

Senator EAGLETON. Out of how many fourth graders?

Dr. FOSTER. This would be somewhere in the neighborhood of 75,000 to 80,000 so approximately half are taking it.

Senator EAGLETON. Why is there only 50 percent participation on your fourth grade test, and about 80 percent utilization of your eighth grade test. Why is that?

Dr. FOSTER. There are several reasons. One would be that many districts feel that they have a good testing program in place and did not need the test that we have developed.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you think that they do?

Dr. FOSTER. In many cases they do, yes.

Then there are some that really haven't looked into it that much, and are just going on with what they are doing.

Dr. MALLORY. We have made all this statewide testing available on a voluntary basis, Senator, with the exception of the basic essential skills test. The State board of education is asking that every eithth grader take the test.

Senator EAGLETON. Why wouldn't you be just as insistent at the fourth grade level if the Kottmeyer theory, I'll call it, has some

truth in it as Dr. Foster said. Why wouldn't you strongly urge, intimidate with decency, the fourth and the eighth?

Dr. MALLORY. You have to understand my style. I don't really believe that's the thing for me to do. I don't believe that the State should require school districts to all look the same or to deal with their programs exactly the same. I think diversity is good. I make the assumption that every superintendent of schools in the State of Missouri is more concerned about the youngsters in that school than you and I. I assume that has got to be true. I am very much concerned about them. I know that you are. But that superintendent of schools is trying to look after the very very best interest of those youngsters, and I doubt that it is going to be necessary for me to impose a second grade, third grade, fifth grade test.

The reason for the eighth grade test? You say well why change your style at the eighth grade? I think that we need some baseline data in the State of Missouri. For the first time in the history of public education, I at least know how we are doing and remember that this is basic skills. We aren't talking about stuff necessary to get into college. We're not talking about a matriculation examination. We're talking about fundamental basic skills.

I am developing some baseline data as to how we are doing in basic skills in the State of Missouri. The fact of the matter is, in Missouri, Johnny reads pretty good. Not good enough, embarrassingly low in some cases, but not too bad. I didn't know that until we started this basic essential skills test. As I said at the beginning, Senator, our little test is not without debate. No test is perfect, but it is an excellent test and as we improve it, change it, develop it, and still leave it at about the same level, we will see how we are doing in these areas of reading and arithmetic, economics, and government over a period of time.

For the purpose that we believe we need some baseline data, we impose that test as is our authority to do so under our classification system, classifying schools. But I don't really believe that it is necessary for the State of Missouri to impose upon the public schools details of their educational program. Call their attention to them, absolutely.

Senator EAGLETON. The BEST test has been criticized, I believe, as being too simple or too easy. And perhaps has been criticized in other regards, we may hear some of that criticism in today's testimony. What is your rebuttal, if there is a rebuttal, to the criticism that has been levied with respect to the BEST test?

Dr. MALLORY. You rebut first, Charles.

Dr. FOSTER. All right. First of all, the thing that the Commissioner has mentioned here, Senator, is that it is a basic skills test. It was not designed to test in terms of achievement of all the youngsters. But it was our belief that the citizens of our State are saying that there are certain fundamental basic skills that every youngster ought to learn. This is sort of a demand, as I see it, saying that regardless of their ability, they ought to learn these things.

So what we were trying to do, we were trying to develop a test that said here is a floor so high that probably every youngster who has normal ability ought to achieve.

For 70 or 80 percent of the kids, sure enough, they could score 100 percent on this. But then——

Dr. MALLORY. But they didn't.

Dr. FOSTER. This is true, some of them didn't. So what we, in essence, did here, was provide a local school report and an individual student report so that each student that did not do well was identified individually so that instruction could be improved according to the needs of that youngster in these basic skills.

So we didn't want a tough test for the basics, we have other tests that are really developed at a difficulty level that tests every youngster.

Dr. MALLORY. Senator, we have an assessment program in the State of Missouri at the 6th and 12th grade level that no student will ever top. It is a statewide assessment test, used on a voluntary basis. It takes the 18 or so major subject areas—the sum total of all human knowledge tested for. No student is ever going to make 100 percent on that. It is easy to devise a test that nobody can pass.

But let me just say one thing about this basic essential skills test. I don't know how many objectives one could come up with in these areas of reading and arithmetic, economics, and government that are basic and fundamental to all, maybe 1,000. We settled on 39 to be tested with a piece of paper and a pencil. Ten more to be tested at the local district level. Only 49 objectives out of all that are available. It is not a test to try to determine whether or not a person should go on to college. I want to emphasize that.

If we as a Nation and we as a State are interested in basic skills, we are going to have to define what those basic skills are. We had several hundred people in the State of Missouri, teachers and others, who came together and tried to develop these 39 objectives to be tested by paper and pencil and the 10 to be tested at the local district level and signed off by the teacher.

Yes, there is criticism of the basic skills test. Somebody asked one time, "Are you going to send money to the schools so that we can teach these basic skills?" Well, Senator, that is what the whole thing is about. Basic skills. That is the function of public education as well as many other things. We have money. We probably don't need a national appropriation or State appropriation just to take care of basic skills. That is a personal view. You will get a lot of debate and you will find that people will not agree with us on this, but I think it is an excellent start.

Let me just say once again. I know this is an imperfect science, this thing in education and I know that we have youngsters going through the Missouri schools who don't do well, and we are sorry about this. In 1975 we started calling attention to this and I want to leave with you some excellent materials that we have made available to the schools to try to emphasize the importance of basic skills, and right on top here is a booklet, "Twenty-Five Ways a Parent Can Help A Child Learn to Read at Home". And it encourages reading.

Senator EAGLETON. One final question. In all of your testimony, Dr. Mallory and Dr. Foster, you talked about reading and math skills, economics, and government. I want to ask a question on writing skills.

Let me tell you my reason for the question. I have people come into me, graduates, many of them with master's degrees, some with Ph. D.'s, many with law degrees looking for jobs as legislative aide.

They are verbally very articulate. They are obviously bright with keen, sharp minds. I have never tested them on pocket calculators, but I assume that they could manipulate a pocket calculator and make all kinds of calculations. When they give me something that they have written, in many instances, and these are graduates of some of the most prestigious colleges in the country, their writing skills are deplorable. They know nothing about sentence structure, punctuation appears to be a lost art, paragraphing is passé. It is sort of a stream of consciousness writing with dashes, no periods, et cetera.

How are we going to test and what are we going to do about writing skills?

Dr. MALLORY. I have a feeling that unless a person is able to write it down on a piece of paper, he probably hasn't thought it through. Unless you can write it down, you probably are not organized very well, in your thoughts. I think writing is of great significance, or great importance. Most people are not good writers, most people are not creative writers. We are not talking about penmanship, we are talking about the ability to express your thoughts on a piece of paper so that it is fluent and people can understand it.

I don't think there is any magic as to how we are going to do this. I am not sure that we were ever great writers in this country. We of course, go back and read the great writers, those who put together the great documents were obviously able to turn a phrase.

I think that we need to make major improvement in the area of writing. I don't have that in this packet, but I have been concerned about this for several years, and about a year and half ago, I asked a group of people to put together the best suggestion we could possibly make to a third grade teacher or a high school teacher on writing skills.

Our students coming out of college, as you say, going into teaching are not skillful in writing and don't know how to teach it. It is an omission which I think all of us as teachers can't deny.

We are trying to get a grip on it, not sprinkle magic over it, but we think that maybe within 6 or 8 weeks, we will have a little manual out which will be one of the best in the country, we hope. We can't find anything on this, we are developing it. And incidentally, we are doing some of this with the "Right to Read" money, Senator, which is very significant and very important. We will send you a copy of this when it comes out, and I think as we use it and improve upon it, it will be of some assistance.

But I don't have an answer as to what happened or why it happened, we are not emphasizing writing though as we used to. Maybe we should, I think that we should.

Dr. FOSTER. It is on the BEST. We have it as one of those objectives scored locally, that of being able to write. Even in the basic skills we are trying to emphasize this and perhaps the emphasis will be helpful.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Dr. Foster. Thank you very much, Arthur.

Senator Pell has a question, I beg your pardon.

Senator PELL. One question on this test. I am inclined to agree with you. About 10 years ago, Senator John Sherman Cooper and I introduced legislation called the Quality in Education Act, and it

would have called for both various States to set up commissions on the quality in education and also for a test, like the regent's test in New York. It was never a very popular proposal. And then I remembered the meeting that you referred to where we had the pleasure of being under the same roof some time ago. There were about 200 or 300 people there. I asked how many agreed with me that we needed some kind of voluntary test of this sort, which I believe in. I remember that only three hands went up. What do you think on a political basis one can do to insure greater acceptability on this idea?

Dr. MALLORY. I am not the expert to give you an answer, it will just be opinion. I know that you need to ask this of some of the other witnesses today.

I think that we need to keep in mind that we in the school business at the local level fiercely guard our autonomy. I am not talking about myself now, I am talking about my retired superintendent of school's daddy, and all of the other school board members, people in the community. I get a phone call a day from someone saying, "Mr. Mallory, will you come down here and fix this in our school district." And I ask them, "Do you really want the State of Missouri to come and do this?" Well, they say, "Well, in this case, yes, but stay out of our hair on the rest of it."

When we have a problem, we look for somebody to give us a hand. I feel that these discussions that you are going to be having and the initiatives that you will obviously make are to call attention, Senator, to things which local schools need to be doing.

I am sure that some of my colleagues will call this to your attention, and if they don't, we should. We are not only trying to deal with arithmetic, reading, and history in school nowadays, but there are lot of things we are trying to deal with. I am not complaining about it, but we are asking the schools to take care of so many things. Maybe what we need to do and maybe this effort, looking at the basics and looking at some of the fundamental programs, maybe we need to emphasize what school is all about. Maybe we shouldn't try during the 6-hour schoolday to take care of all society's needs. But it has to be something dealt with by the local governing body, the local board of education.

I believe that on a political basis, maybe I can call attention to it, and maybe I can get away with—here in the State of Missouri, with requiring a basic essential skills test. But education is still what the people want to make of it. I really believe that. I think that we ought to leave it in the hands of the local board of education, the local autonomy.

Senator PELL. Thank you, Dr. Mallory.

Dr. MALLORY. It is good to have you in our State, thank you for joining us today.

Senator PELL. Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Next we will have three superintendents of school districts in Missouri, Dr. Warren Brown, our host superintendent; Dr. Robert Wentz, superintendent of the St. Louis City Public Schools; and Dr. Samuel Harbin, superintendent, Sikeston School District. Will those gentlemen please come forward?

Good morning, gentlemen. I guess we will have an opening statement from each of you, and then will go to some questions. We will start with you, Dr. Brown, and then move down the line.

STATEMENTS OF DR. WARREN M. BROWN, SUPERINTENDENT, FERGUSON-FLORISSANT SCHOOL DISTRICT; DR. ROBERT E. WENTZ, SUPERINTENDENT, ST. LOUIS CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS; AND DR. SAMUEL HARBIN, SUPERINTENDENT, SIKESTON SCHOOL DISTRICT, A PANEL

Dr. BROWN. I would like to repeat that our school district is honored to have you here. And I want to tell you something about our school community because it will serve as an introduction to some statements that I want to make about what we are doing in the basic skills area because it seems to work rather uniquely.

We have some programs in operation which are remarkably parallel to some of the very objectives and goals in the Basic Skills Improvement Act. We have a track record on this, Senator, and for that reason, I hope that you will have an opportunity to read the statement of testimony which I have written and which I hope will be used for the formal purpose of this hearing so that I won't have to spend that much time going over it.

This is a suburban community, but we have a good range of socioeconomic levels here. We are integrated and we are mainstreamed. We have about 18,000 students. Our programs vary from a program involving 3-year-olds to advanced college-level courses offered at this high school and others. We have students attending college as part of their senior year experience in addition to some of the college early admission programs and others of that type.

What I am saying is that the top-level students are doing beautifully here and elsewhere. This relates to the subject of basic skills. It needs to be pointed out because it fits into the testimony of Dr. Mallory—taking 100 percent of the students available for education, the good students are doing very much better. I would agree with the Senator with respect to communication skills, and I have a statement on that that I may or may not make. I have an answer to your question, it is in the written testimony.

Our school community is an average community. We are not a wealthy community. We have to economize. We do have an excellent staff and we do have a high aspiring parent group. That is essential to any good program.

What we have accomplished, anybody can accomplish even with limited financial resources. We do have the element of size, about 18,000 students, and that is, of course, above the national average. These same things could be accomplished in smaller school systems.

Senator Eagleton, our SAT scores have not declined at Ferguson-Florissant High School while the nation was declining. Our achievement test scores are well above national levels. We have one of those testing programs that is somewhat independent of the State, but it tests at all levels, beginning at age 3. Our student body's ability level is just slightly above the national norm, that is for the past 3 years.

We feel that we are doing very well. We are not meeting the needs of all the students in basic skills, but we are getting to the

fundamentals. We have received an exceptionally high number of Federal programs—literally dozens of programs. We were one of the first "Right to Read" schools in the Nation.

Senator PELL. Excuse me, if I may interrupt for a moment. I think some of these programs may be the result of having a Senator both on the Appropriations Subcommittee as well as the authorizing subcommittee.

Dr. BROWN. I have never worked at that directly, but it has been suggested to me. I think that the quality of the program as presented by the staff perhaps sold them.

But it is nice to know Senator Eagleton, for many reasons.

There are four programs which I outlined, Senator Eagleton, which hit right at the matter of the basic skills and, I think, are germane. Some of them are established as developer demonstrator, which means that they are models for the nation and can easily be adapted or adopted intact.

I think that the most important thing to do, and it has to be done on a voluntary level, is to involve students early. I am talking about preschool programs. They must be optional, but they deal with rigorous diagnosis and screening at the earliest possible age. We do that with 3-year-olds on a voluntary basis, but most parents, in fact, volunteer them. Many of these children go on to other schools besides Ferguson-Florissant public schools. But it gives an early identification of potential education deficits. The professional staff can work on them at the outset. And Dr. Kottmeyer is right, but the testing in the fourth grade is too late. The schools have to test them as soon as they can get them so that school staff can begin to work with them as individuals. That is the No. 1 priority which we have found.

We started this in 1969 and have been testing those children year by year since. Those gains that they have made are phenomenal. We have moved large numbers out of the so-called retarded category, who looked at first to be mentally retarded.

Senator EAGLETON. But were not?

Dr. BROWN. But were not. Through proper education, they were brought out of that range and ranking. The achievement levels are well above the control group and have remained so. They are now in the sixth grade.

Senator EAGLETON. Describe for me if you will the nature of your program in the early years. If the testing that is used shows a reading deficiency, what kind of work is done with that student? How? one on one? one with four? an hour a week? a half hour a day? What is the depth of the remedial program that you have when you see a youngster that has a reading problem?

Dr. BROWN. Of course, it varies with his age. If he is very young, as young as age 3, we would have a trained, special education teacher work with that child in his home with his parents once a week, maybe 2 hours. Perhaps twice a week, depending on the need. He would come into one of our kindergarten rooms on Saturday with all other preschool students. He would mainstream. We mainstream students in this program on Saturday morning in a 3-hour intensive experience, which is taught by preschool specialist teachers and by parents. By the way, this started as a federally funded program.

The answer is that it is essentially one on one, if the child did not have a definable learning deficit. We don't expect 3-year-olds to read. We can detect some learning deficits—perhaps physiological—perhaps psychological—that will mean inadequate reading skills later on when at age 5 or 6 the student would be expected to gain reading skills. Half of our children in kindergarten are now reading.

Now all of the rest of the children—about 70 percent who do not show any definable deficits—would go through the program also and they would have a special teacher in their home with no more than four students once a week. The teacher would come in and leave specific learning materials for the parent to use with the child during the week. She would follow up the next week. On Saturday morning, we would bring children together in groups of 10, using parents as well as teachers to teach those groups.

There is a spinoff of parent education which is very important, and our parents love it. I thought that I would be intruding with that program in 1969. In fact, our teachers were welcomed with open arms by young parents who needed to improve their skills. So we add some group experience for parents on the subject of parent education. So we have parent education itself, teaching parents to teach students, direct teaching of students and remediation of deficits.

Senator EAGLETON. Let's stop right there. I know this is a bit out of order, but let me ask the other two superintendents what programs they have in their school districts that are in anyway comparable in scope and outreach as the program described by Superintendent Brown. We will go to you, Dr. Harbin.

Dr. HARBIN. The program that we have, the only program that we have, and I think that it should be said that the size of the school district, the wealth of the school district has quite a bit to do with the programs that you would have.

The program that we have would be a study center that we use in the early grades to try to remediate—identify and remediate the problems of our youngsters. That is about the only thing that we have been able to afford in this area.

Senator EAGLETON. Spell out for us how that program works and—first, about how many students in your district to get an idea here.

Dr. HARBIN. There are about 5,200 in our district.

Senator EAGLETON. As opposed to 18,000, Warren, in yours?

Dr. BROWN. That is right.

Dr. HARBIN. With an assessed evaluation behind each child of $8,000, which would give you some sort of an idea of the wealth of the district, which is significant in this case.

This child study center is located in an elementary school that serves the needs of the elementary division and it is used to identify and remediate and prescribe for problems of youngsters in the early ages. This would be the only program that we have other than our kindergarten program and various visitation programs that we have with kindergarten teachers to our community.

Senator EAGLETON. This starts at kindergarten, I understand. Is there any kind of parent involvement that is similar to what Dr. Brown testified?

Dr. HARBIN. Yes, we have strictly a volunteer program, Senator. That is, we do not have paid staff that go into the homes, but we do reach parents through our public relations program and the visitation in the home by teachers. Parents are invited to come into the school and work with the children also work in their own homes with their children.

Senator EAGLETON. How many teachers do you have in the Sikeston District that are clsssified as reading specialist that have trained as a reading specialist or remedial reading teacher. How many of those do you have?

Dr. HARBIN. Seven.

Senator EAGLETON. Let's get a comment from Dr. Wentz.

Dr. WENTZ. We do not have a program that is as broad or as extensive as what Warren was describing. The only comparable program that we have—well there are a couple of different approaches.

We have had Head Start for sometime and we cooperate with them in their program. In that program there are considerable efforts for early detection and working with families as well as young children.

We have through our various Federal programs and with some private resources gone to some, what we call summer roundup types of activities that involve the very early detection of educational deficiencies and working in a concentrated effort with small children, preschool children and their families. In fact, the children cannot participate unless their parents do participate because it is a limited program, limited resources, so if parents are not willing to participate, since there is a limited number that can be handled in the summer, we do not allow the student to participate.

We don't have a year-round program working with preschool children. We would very much like to, but the resources are limited and we therefore do not have an extensive program. We have been working through our community school efforts and with the corporation of the Danforth Foundation and with our city of expanding program in our community school effort. In fact, it is an interesting combine with the Public Works Act funds, we put some additions on about seven of our community schools, and those are nearing completion. Those facilities provide for a preschool room.

Dr. BROWN. One of the big problems, Senator, is funding. We have tried for two sessions now to get State funding for this, but it lags because it has not been considered to be in the conventional K through 12 sequence. You will remember that it took 30 years to get State aid for kindergarten.

But really, that is an answer. As Dr. Mallory pointed out, we are dealing with the whole spectrum of abilities—all students in some school somewhere. This is the best way to get at it, but it is not recognized as for example, a chemistry course in high school is recognized as a basic ingredient in the educational process.

We were funded as a special experimental program through title III, now 4C. And we are still being funded as a developer/demonstrator site because the program is such a successful one. It is a model, and I would commend it to you for study by the staffers who are working on this basic skills program. I think that a lot of money could well go into that.

Senator EAGLETON. Again, let me ask a question, we will go right down the line.

Assume that each one of you were made educational czar of the United States. Would you mandate a basic skills test at the National level, at the State level and, if so, at what levels?

Dr. BROWN. That is pleasant to do, particularily when it can only be temporary.

I think that the Nation has the right to expect minimum levels of competence because of the high mobility of our population and because an enlightened citizenry is essential to a democracy. That is a fundamental.

But one of the great advantages of the American democratic system is that the State and Federal Governments share sovereignty; that is, they have a division of powers. We said at the outset, sovereignty in education rests with the State. That is not an excuse for the State or local districts—which are just creatures of the State and can be changed at any time—to ignore their responsibility for teaching basic skills.

The State is sovereign in education and ought to set the standards. I think one could make a case for a minimum competency test such as the one that we have in Missouri. I could make a case for the State to mandate early diagnosis and help pay for it. I would hope that they would give us a variety, because there is not one test in the educational quiver that is going to be a sure shot. We do not have that test yet; therefore, we need local option in testing procedure.

I would say that the State needs to have at the top level a test to show how students perform, and at the beginning level the State might mandate some early diagnostic procedures.

The Federal Government should retain its stance of sampling through an outside source. With a large sample that Federal officials have to deal with, they can really see how schools are doing without imposing a regent's exam on every kid in America.

Senator Pell, my big worry about that is that the minimum becomes the maximum. A national test would just close the top on all of these beautiful kids who are going over the top now, and we are talking about 50 percent of the student body in the high schools in this country.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Harbin?

Dr. HARBIN. I am sympathetic to the type of program that Warren has mentioned, Dr. Mallory mentioned to you earlier, for two or three reasons.

The main reason is this mandating of minimal essential skills of our eighth grade will allow school districts in Missouri and particularily ours to analyze the results of those tests and develop curriculum patterns and amendments and variations that will meet the needs of some of the weaknesses that we find that we have in our particular curriculum.

The second reason is that it is going to allow us to be quite a bit more accountable to our community by having some solid statistics to look to and talk about and have dialog with our patrons.

The third reason is, it is going to give us a little more basis to ask our legislators to increase State aid to education in Missouri if we can show them through results and through statistics that we

are doing what we are trying to do with this minimum essential skills testing and the follow through program that we would have from those.

Senator EAGLETON. Just a brief followup with you, Dr. Harbin on what you said.

If part of the test is to give you the statistical and substantive base to go to the State and say look, we need more money for this, that and another thing, wouldn't that have to be a test that compares Missouri to some other States? Missouri is doing the best, Mississippi the worst and all the others are in between?

Dr. HARBIN. No, I certainly would not advocate that. My point should have been that legislators are pushed each year to raise the dollar assessment in Missouri, are asked by all the educators and the related groups in Missouri to increase their appropriations. They are finding it increasingly difficult to justify those increases. This type base data will help them better justify that.

Senator EAGLETON. Good.

Dr. Wentz, back to you with the hypothetical czar.

Dr. WENTZ. Well, as it is hypothetical, the answer I would give would be yes, with certain perimeters similar to those already mentioned. It would be understood that it would be for the purpose of identification of student needs which would help in the further deployment of programs and, in addition, that it would be used for showing some measure of the improvement that is expected or anticipated and with some assurance of defining the outcomes. That is, permitting the school system to report to the school district. So I think with some perimeters that make sense, some mandatory testing programs could, in fact, be implemented.

Senator EAGLETON. All right. Thank you.

I am told that some people want us to take about a 10-minute recess. So we will do that and then continue with our three panelists, if they can stay with us a little while longer after the 10-minute recess.

[A short recess was taken.]

Senator EAGLETON. This hearing will come to order.

I have another question, going down the line, for our three witnesses. If money were available—but a finite amount of money, I'm not talking about a grandiose figure—how many additional remedial reading teachers could you intelligently use? And are enough reading specialist coming out of our colleges and universities?

Dr. BROWN. Well, in Ferguson-Florissant, given the size of our district, we already have some local reading specialists. We also have a State reading program and we are using the title I Federal program for that purpose. So, 12 more would suit our purposes.

In order to get that answer current, I don't know how many we are using altogether. Remediation is the least effective method of instruction, as our friend, Dr. Kottmeyer, told you. Prevention is a much better way to get at it. So we wouldn't use just remedial education teachers who work with 10 students special drills and that sort of thing. That is one way to do it. It does work; it has some gain; but it is a long, hard road.

Dr. HARBIN. If our board of education was committed to this piecemeal-type approach, then they would probably want to expand

the reading programs through the secondary school and then in that case could use a half dozen.

Dr. WENTZ. I couldn't give you a number, Senator. The remedial reading teachers, the bulk of them in our system, have been trained through the efforts of the school system in reading clinics which were developed by Dr. Kottmeyer many years ago and in cooperation with Harris Teachers College. The training has been very effective and most successful and is ongoing.

I agree with the statement that Warren made. The developmental programs that occur are the most successful and therefore the kind of training that is necessary is necessary for all the teachers, not just selected individuals. Certainly if that training is done for all of the staff, then you are going to have the reinforcement at each level.

Senator EAGLETON. Of course, I interrupted the opening remarks, I interrupted you in the middle, Warren. Do you have an afterthought to give us before we move on to some thoughts from Dr. Harbin and Dr. Wentz?

Dr. BROWN. I have many, I will limit myself to two.

One thing that I want to say, out of our experience, Senator, concerns Federal programs. This district has had literally dozens of them. We have tried to take advantage of that resource to supplement what we are doing locally. It has worked out very well.

By far the best productivity for the Federal dollar is in staff development. When a Federal program is started—let's take an experimental program—it must be completed. Most of those are 3-year programs, and if you are lucky, you might get a 1-year extension. Then the Federal money dries up. Where do you go from there?

You have to have an outcome from that Federal special program dollar which stays with you. Two things stay with you: Materials of instruction which you can put into your library, and human growth which comes as a result of staff development. If you are overstaffing and then have to cut back because the program dries up, that is bad news.

So if you get into remediation or supplementing special staff, it must go on forever. The local tax base which unfortunately in education is a property tax base, is not flexible and does not adapt to the cost of living. So when the Federal program which results in the saturation of staff dries up, then there is an abrupt change to the disadvantage of everybody.

My point again is that staff development and providing materials for instruction are the best way for a Federal program to be handled. They don't tend to be directive. The staff development can be very localized with the staff identifying its own needs. The local districts can put a program together using university and other resources to meet those needs.

We had a lot of it to do when we got a court order in 1975 to annex two adjacent districts and to desegerate all three. But staff development and material stay with you. Equipment does not, it breaks down. Overstaffing does not, it breaks down and you can't replace it.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Harbin, we will move on to you now. If you have a prepared statement, we will put that in the record. Do

you have some additional comments that you would like to direct to us?

Dr. HARBIN. I have a prepared statement, Senator Eagleton, but with your permission, I will just touch a few points that have not been covered.

Senator EAGLETON. Good.

Dr. HARBIN. Expanding on what Dr. Brown has mentioned to you, I would also like to bring to your attention two or three problems that we have in districts such as ours with Federal aid, especially narrow in scope, short-term Federal aid.

One of the problems that we have, once a Federal program has been terminated, there is usually a problem within the community of wanting that program maintained. If it is kept, it must be done with local funds, and in our part of the State, at least in our district, local funds are very limited. So this is a real problem with us and we have experienced this over the last 14 years to an extent approaching $200,000 of local funds being used to carry on terminated Federal programs, which in most districts would not be important, but in ours is a very substantial situation.

One other problem that is narrow in scope is a community problem, an image problem. Federal programs of this type without exception usually require additional personnel, most of the time in the management area, nonteaching personnel, director, coordinator, supervisor, and we are finding it increasingly difficult to present to our community an image that we have enough Indians, but too many chiefs. Now, as all of us know, there is quite a bit of difference in where the money comes from, but as far as public relations, as far as management of personnel is concerned, it is very difficult at times to make those differences.

Then there is one other point that I would like to mention in regard to my testimony, and that is, I want to reiterate what Dr. Mallory has said and what has been implied by my colleagues here that it is not a fact and is not accepted at all that we have ever really left the basics, but would like to reiterate that some of us believe, I believe, indeed that we have improved upon the basics by improving the methodology, techniques and concepts related to the teaching of the basics, but that one of our problems is that we have expanded our curriculum from 40 units in 1964 to 132 units today—vocational education, special semester classes, electives of a type that would cause students to have many more choices in development of a program to follow. We believe, as you do, that students are successfully completing 12 or 13 years of school that would have quit in disappointment in the good ole days.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you. Dr. Wentz?

Dr. WENTZ. I will do the same thing, Senator, not read the prepared statement but will share copies with you.

The one point that I did mention in that prepared statement that has not been mentioned is the relationship to what we know about—what we have learned from research in recent years and I think that there has to be a very serious look at that research or stop doing the research. Certainly as we look at the situation, some of our perspectives might be a little different based upon the uniqueness of our school system but I think that it is felt already that the concerns are similar, some of the problems are similar, the

magnitude of some of those might be more intensely felt, depending on where you are.

Certainly as we look at the situation, we recognize that there are gaps in the learning patterns for young people where you have high mobility of the families, and in our situation from May until the following September, as many as 33 percent of our population will be in a different location. That continues on year after year. Certainly that adds to the gaps in the patterns of learning. As we look at the situation, we can begin to predict some of those dropouts based on their frustration with the fact that they have not acquired the basic skills and much of the disenchantment of our young people can be attributed to the fact that they have inadequate basic skill.

I would agree again that we have never left basic education, or the attempt to teach the basic education skills. There have been the add-ons that all of us are familiar with.

I would hope that we would consider in this legislation as well as all other legislation that an attempt to improve the delivery of services to young people, we would push for greater coordination. One of the problems that we have is the fact that so many of the programs are not dovetailed in a manner to maximize the efforts. I have seen that particularily as one looks at emergency school aid moneys and the various titles moneys under the Elementary-Secondary School Education Act, that there has to be a better way of coordinating those efforts. Much of the lack of coordination falls in the way some of the guidelines are written, they become counterproductive in my experience.

Certainly with the limited number of dollars available in this piece of legislation, it would seem obvious that only a limited number would be funded and I would hope that those would be those programs with the greatest promise in that the concentration would be there and that the programs would be funded for a long enough period of time so that the results can be beneficial but that the discimination of the information can be utilized in other school systems.

Senator EAGLETON. Very good, thank you. Senator Pell?

Senator PELL. One question to you, Dr. Brown.

I was very struck with your statement that your teachers go into the student's homes in many cases. How do you get them to cooperate with you in that? I thought that the NEA and all the teacher's unions opposed that idea.

Dr. BROWN. I don't know what the teacher's unions position is on the subject, but our teachers are extremely well prepared and dedicated. They understand that it is part of the professional assignment. They accept it and enjoy doing it.

Senator PELL. I congratulate you in that, I agree with you in that and wish that it would happen in more areas.

Senator EAGLETON. Is that inhome visit limited solely to preschool?

Dr. BROWN. There are exceptions, of course. It is extended through the primary grades, but not universally. It does include kindergarten. The 3-, 4-, and 5-year olds would get home visits in accordance with age.

Senator EAGLETON. And what about those having problems later on, do the teachers visit the homes of a child?

Dr. BROWN. Yes, sir, they do. We have social workers and they might well arrange to be——

Senator EAGLETON. The teachers.

Dr. BROWN. Yes, sir. The social workers would go to the home and they might arrange a visit by the teacher going into that home.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, gentlemen, very, very much.

We now have a student panel. I don't have the names. Would the students come forward?

STATEMENTS OF ALOYSIUS ROYAL, LAURA PLANK, AND JANET MOE, SENIORS AT McCLUER NORTH SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, FLORISSANT, MO., A STUDENT PANEL

Senator EAGLETON. Have you been present from the outset of the hearings?

Miss PLANK. No.

Senator EAGLETON. All right. Let me tell you what these hearings are about then we want to get your perspectives and insights.

This is the Education Subcommittee of the U.S. Senate. Senator Pell of Rhode Island is the Chairman of that subcommittee. They are Federal programs that assist local school districts in education and provides the moneys to local school districts. But the primary obligation of education, of course, is with the local school board and with the local school district.

We are concerned that in recent years there has been a decline in the test scores for the so-called basic skills, reading, math, and, though writing is not included in the score, I am convinced that there might be an ever greater decline in writing skills. We want to know first, is that the fact, and how should we cope with it?

We will start with Mr. Royal and go down through Miss Plank and Miss Moe.

You are seniors, about to leave this institution. Looking back on your own educational evolution, and career, thinking back to an earlier period, maybe the first grade, fifth, maybe eighth, do you think of areas where if you had been given a little more assistance with your reading, writing or math skills might have been enhanced and how should it have been done?

Mr. ROYAL. As far as grade school is concerned, my writing was comparable with the average and quite above. I find that, when I look back on my grade school education, if I had done a lot more reading I would be far more advanced. But as far as my education in grade school, I would definitely say that it wasn't short at all. On up through junior high and high school, it has been enhanced and no shortages in it whatsoever.

Senator EAGLETON. You say that your reading skills could have been improved earlier on? Are you talking about fourth to seventh grade, in that age?

Mr. ROYAL. About fourth to seventh, yes.

Senator EAGLETON. At what point did it come into your mind that maybe you needed a little extra help in reading? When you felt that maybe you weren't moving as fast as the student beside you?

Mr. ROYAL. When I was in about the eighth grade when we really got into writing essays, things like that. And I found myself really short as far as the basics that I needed to do so. I made an effort and worked with some teachers and brought myself up to par on that.

Also, when I look at my two smaller brothers in grade school, I see the amount of reading that they are doing now. and I remember when I was in grade school, I didn't do very much reading like that at all. As far as now, there is no shortage in it.

Senator EAGLETON. Your younger brothers are doing more reading than you did?

Mr. ROYAL. Oh, yes. Without a doubt.

Senator EAGLETON. Is that because of the school's insistence, your parents or maybe you do a little insisting?

Mr. ROYAL. I think because of the school's insistence on it really.

Senator EAGLETON. OK. Miss Plank, would you comment on some of this?

Miss PLANK. I feel that my education in Ferguson-Florissant has been good, there are no shortcomings. A great deal of it came through my own efforts, I went to the teachers for help. Perhaps the interest that I showed made the teacher respond a bit to me. I feel that many of the teachers didn't respond and then I would have to make a greater effort outside the class. I would have my mother and father help me or other parents that I knew or people that I was involved with outside of class.

Many times outside reading helped me as much as in class. The teacher would encourage this and I feel that it was important that they encouraged the out-of-class reading. Without the out-of-class reading, I don't think that you are learning everything.

Senator EAGLETON. Was there a time in your academic career where you thought perhaps you were in need of help in reading, writing, or mathematics, that perhaps you needed special help?

Miss PLANK. I myself have never had a problem with reading, or math. I think that maybe early on, they could have moved a little faster for me. They start out rather slowly and there are people who can move faster through the basics and I think that probably I would have been able to pick myself up a little more, a little faster.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you know if the Ferguson-Florissant School District has a two- or three-track system, is there a faster track, a middle track, and a slower track?

Miss PLANK. In seventh grade, I was put in a classroom teaching on a team basis and there you worked on a faster track. It wasn't until junior high that I was really able to get involved in what I was learning, the rest of it was basic things that came easy. I was really interested when I got in the faster track.

Senator EAGLETON. I know that this question is hard to quantify, but I will ask you, do you think that there has been a decline in recent years as far as the writing skills are concerned of your classmates, compared with earlier years? Have you had occasion to think about the essays that you and your classmates are writing, and do you think that there are some inadequacies in writing skills?

Miss PLANK. I think that the writing skills that I have acquired have been lacking in some areas. In covering grammar the teacher

wouldn't think something was important and would skip over it. Later on, I would find I needed that, why didn't they go over it with me? I think otherwise they cover a lot of things necessary, but they leave out a good deal, too.

Senator EAGLETON. All right. Miss Moe, do you have some comments along the lines I have been asking?

Miss MOE. On reading I can't really qualify. I was reading before I entered school. But on writing I feel that I could have used a bit more help. I can write all right, but if I wanted to write more creatively I would need help.

Mathematics, I could have used more help. When I did need help, I went to the teacher, I went to my parents and I understood it.

I feel that I have gotten a very good education from this school.

Senator EAGLETON. I guess that none of us can recall the full range of our academic background, but somewhere along the line were certain hard and fast punctuation skills pounded into your head? We'll go down the line again here.

Mr. ROYAL. Yes. When I was in the sixth grade, I thought that was what English was all about because that is all the teacher really instilled. It really got boring to me at one time. When I look back on it, I find that it was necessary. The semicolon goes here, not a comma. A comma goes here, things of that nature. But it was definitely pounded in there. When I got to the seventh grade also, it was reviewed, and then in my sophomore year, I took a class called paragraph skills and grammar and usage. That refreshed me on it. It is always good to go over things like that. When I have written compositions for different teachers, those are the things that the teacher expects you to know. If you have mistakes like that in the paper, they totally ignore the paper and refuse to read it.

So in my experience, I received that in the seventh grade with a refresher later on. It was pounded into me.

Senator EAGLETON. Were you pounded?

Miss PLANK. Yes, I was pounded. I think that it went on so long in the seventh and eighth grade that I was getting tired of it, I was ready to quit. But I think that it was very important as I look back, it is important to know those things. They come in handy in English, of course, and in history where you do write a lot of essays.

Miss MOE. It was not pounded in as much for me, but I have had review courses in 9th, 10th and in almost every English course they review it a little. So gradually I got it.

Senator EAGLETON. Did all three of you take the BEST test in the eighth grade? No, I'm sorry, it was not offered then.

Do all three of you intend to go on to college?

Mr. ROYAL. I do.

Miss PLANK. I do.

Miss MOE. Definitely.

Senator EAGLETON. Have all three of you taken the SAT?

Mr. ROYAL. Yes.

Miss PLANK. Yes.

Miss MOE. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Write on a secret piece of paper how you did.

Senator PELL. One question. What is your view as to the advisability of some form of test to be taken on a voluntary basis at the end of the senior year by all students. Would you think that was a good idea or a poor idea in order to get a point of reference as to how you stand in the country, not only in Missouri or in your own school?

I would first ask Mr. Royal.

Mr. ROYAL. Since I am going on to college, I would be in favor of something like that on a voluntary basis, just to give each student an opportunity to determine for himself whether or not he would like to take the test. But as far as my personal view, I would definitely want to take it to see where I stand with everybody else going to college or whatever.

Miss PLANK. I think that it would depend on the form of testing. A great many times, those tests don't really mean anything. They test you on things that are ambiguous. If it was on a voluntary basis, I can see that maybe it would be useful. There are people that would want to take the test, but I, myself, would not want to.

Miss MOE. I would want to take the test. College is pretty competitive and I would want to know what chance I had at that college. If it were a test on things that I knew, basic stuff, I would be all for it.

Senator PELL. Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, all three of you. We appreciate your being here.

We now have a panel of teachers. Dr. Tony Rollins, president, Missouri National Education Association; Mr. Ralph Ford, president, Missouri State Teachers Association; Ms. Katherine Cormack, Missouri Federation of Teachers.

Good morning. We welcome you. Why don't we call on each of you to make a brief opening statement; if you have prepared statements, they will appear in the record.

We will start with Dr. Rollins and go down the line.

STATEMENTS OF DR. TONY ROLLINS, PRESIDENT, MISSOURI NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION; RALPH FORD, PRESIDENT, MISSOURI STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION; AND MS. KATHERINE CORMACK, MISSOURI FEDERATION OF TEACHERS, A PANEL

Dr. ROLLINS. Thank you, Senators. I know that it wasn't your intent because of the order of the presentations, but I have to admit that oftentimes teachers feel our importance in the system is indicative of the orders of the presentations this morning.

The comments that I want to make are directed primarily at basic essential skills testing. As you are aware, we have one this year, and I would like to comment on that.

The program was initiated, based on the pressures from media, business, industry, labor, parents, school personnel, and students to provide an objective measurement of each student's knowledge of certain basic information in arithmetic, reading, government, and economics, and the application of such knowledge to the solution of practical, everyday problems.

Our organization questioned the advisability of that in 1977 because of the way that it was developed. One of the things that was

of most concern to us, teachers were not involved when that decision was made.

We have several concerns that I would like to bring to your attention.

One, all too often minimum requirements become maximum requirements. An example, in Missouri, we have a requirement for triple A schools to set class size standards. All too often as we go about trying to make convincing arguments for having smaller classes, we are thrown back with "this is the minimum requirement for certification, there is no reason to go beyond that." We have recent research studies that have shown finally what teachers have said all along: smaller classes do improve academic achievement. And when you set basic essential skills, just as you set minimum requirememts for class size, those all too often become the be all and end all in the education system.

We question how the results of such a test will be used. We were assured during the initial studies that the test results were to identify and specify remediation of the student. However, if you were around last year, you could have read in the paper what schools are the best in Kansas City and St. Louis based on the results of such a test.

I think that you have to ask to what are such tests correlated? I am not convinced that they are correlated to the achievement level of the students or the high or low abilities of the teachers in those schools, and might well be more highly correlated with the size of the school district.

This approach is incredibly simplistic. There are so many shoulders bearing the responsibility that to evaluate the process of such a complex venture on such a simple test given in a 3-hour period is simplistic beyond belief.

If we were to try to evaluate the output of the medical profession with such a simplistic approach, what we would do would be go into a hospital and evaluate all of the stitches that have been applied by physicians, seeing how the stitches were done, whether they lived or died or what had been sewn into them would not be taken into account.

The financing of education in the country in general, and Missouri specifically, is a problem. Every year as we look at the ranking of the States on the per pupil expeditures, Missouri continues to slip. We teachers have concerns about the use of money to provide a test when in fact, as we have been told, approximately 90 percent of the students will pass it. I daresay that the teachers could tell you ahead of time the 10 percent who would not pass and we would do better to spend the money on lower class sizes and things like that.

When the tests were first announced, the Missouri National Education Association stated some recommendations, and I would like to mention a couple of those.

We suggested that there was a need to guard against a competency certificate becoming a requirement for graduation and a means of social separatism. This hasn't been done yet, but the rumor is that this will ultimtely become a requirement for graduation.

We felt that we needed to be constantly on the alert for didactic teaching for the test that would be a detriment to the present

curriculum comprising a broad, general education. I have attended meetings where the department of elementary and secondary education personnel have told teachers to teach to that test, because it is for the betterment of the student. There may well be important information in such test, but to begin teaching to it defeats its purpose.

We wanted to seek assurance from the Missouri State School Board that the BEST test will not be used for evaluating teachers, and I have already mentioned the public results of this test.

A final one is that we stated that we must guard against educational resources being concentrated on those students who cannot or will not meet the basic competency level. That has not been done yet, this is the first year that the test is going to be given to all students in the eighth grade. But the potential for that abuse is there.

As I mentioned before, it is expected that 90 percent of the students will pass. We take an already limited educational budget and put a greater emphasis on the 10 percent there, and I question whether that would be of value.

I assure you that the teachers in this area are willing to bear this burden of a basic essential skills test. We made a recent press release to help parents answer questions that students may have about it. We will try to help our teachers understand the needs for the test and the implications of it. I must admit, however, that I don't have a great deal of optimism about the success of such a basic essential skills program.

Senator EAGLETON. Ms. Cormack?

Ms. CORMACK. Yes. Senator Pell, welcome to Missouri. I am sure that I am among many who have welcomed you to our State. Senator Eagleton, on behalf of my organization, I would like to thank you for caring enough about the problems to take this time and, your continuing dedication to the problem of basic educational achievement. In fact, Senator Eagleton, the Missouri Federation of Teachers is honored that you chose our fall State convention to announce your plans for these hearings last November in Kansas City.

You may know, but Senator Pell does not, that before I took the position with the Missouri Federation of Teachers, I was in the classroom 10 years and I taught English for 10 years. We have been talking this morning about writing skills, perhaps later before we leave you would like to question me about them as an English teacher in this area.

My comments are not addressed as specifically as Dr. Rollins to the BEST test, but with all due regard to my colleague, I would like to say that the Missouri Federation of Teachers does fully well parallel the NEA's position and feelings toward the BEST test here. As Tony was speaking, flashing through my mind was a couple of incidents that happened just recently in my home. I have a young woman student in one of the districts in St. Louis who comes in and does some light work for me. For a month, I had been hearing her talk about how she was going to take the BEST test. And I began to speak with her about the preparation, and I have become alarmed as she has told me that for all practical purposes just about everything has been put on the shelf for the past 6

weeks as these students prepare for the BEST test. When tne BEST test was administered to this student and the others on Friday, she came in with a big smile and said, "It was so easy." Now, she is an average student, and I offer this as a personal comment. I asked her what she felt that she had learned. She said, "For 6 weeks, we have done pamphlets, we have taken endless test scores, we have prepared, we have been through the mockup for this, and she said, "Ms. Cormack, I don't really know what this is all about. I could have passed this test several years ago." So what does the test show is certainly one of the questions that we want to address ourselves to as we watch the development and usage of this test in our State.

Actually now for 5 years, since the college entrance examination board announced that falling test scores on the SAT were occurring has the education community been very concerned about basic skills and deficiencies in basic skills.

This particularly touched off other such pronouncements about declining test scores, and of course, today we are here to address ourselves yet again to this problem and to offer suggestions on just how the situation can be remedied. Within the 5 minutes that we have each been allocated, I present to you for consideration statements that I would like the committee to take more time to read.

I have included for your consideration an article prepared by Dr. Jean Chall, professor of education and director of the reading laboratory at Harvard University.

Senator EAGLETON. She will be a witness in our Boston hearings.

Ms. CORMACK. Very good. For further consideration, I have enclosed the report on improving educational achievement prepared by the chairman of this committee, Steven Daily. It was submitted to the Secretary of Education just about a year ago

The M. F. T. would like to say that this short article gives the history as to how the National Academy gathered data for this study, and the A. F. T and M. F. T. fully supports their findings as reported in the full report that completes the materials that I will give to you.

Two things are emphasized in great detail in the report, are these: She, and we, feel that if the test are given early enough in the grade schools and if the results are used as guidelines for instruction, that perhaps tests do have a place in the classroom and in determining classroom deficiencies. Along with this, she is very insistent that instruction is provided as soon as these deficiencies are noted and determined.

A. F. T. feels that testing at the higher grades and setting a statewide minimum competency standard for awarding the school diploma is generally unworkable for a multitude of the problems that we have talked about here this morning.

We feel, though, that the testing procedure can't be thrown out the window in a lump. If there is time, if there is dedication to pursuing testing in the early grades to determine deficiencies, we agree with that and we as teachers dedicate ourselves to the idea and to the concept of overcoming basic skills deficiencies.

Further, we are in support of the efforts that give teachers and administrators the courage to demand the proper instructional

resources that are so sorely needed by those teaching pupils who fail such tests as we are talking about.

In the full report that I leave with you this morning, Ms. Child comments—her further comments are detailed as she even goes into some of the testing procedure that she has reason to feel are useful in this area.

As I close my comments, I would like to say, and perhaps I am reiterating something that my colleagues have said, that as we are defining what basic skills are, we would like to encourage that we do not just concentrate, and particularly put our moneys and our minds on, just on reading, writing, and arithmetic. We would like to remember that although, in many people's minds, the curriculum became rather mushy during the late 1970's, the late 1960's and early 1970's, that we still keep in mind that the arts are certainly part of our basic curriculum also. We are interested in maintaining and developing special programs for special children, children who are not the norm. We feel that at age 5, most children should be able to learn to read, when in fact we know that at age 5 many of the children do not have the readiness for learning to read. It's that child, or children like this child, that make is very impossible to teach the basic skills in the classrooms. One of the superintendents spoke to that a while ago.

We would like to encourage the continued use of teacher's aides, keep an eye on class size as this is a particular problem for the classroom teacher. And we would encourage a strong sense of order and discipline to be established and to continue to be established as basic skills are concentrated on in the classroom.

Thank you very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Ms. Cormack.

Mr. Ford?

Mr. FORD. I am Ralph Ford from Cape Girardeau, Mo. I am president of the Missouri State Teachers Association, a statewide organization of more than 40,000 members. We are an all inclusive organization and our membership includes teachers, administrators, principals, superintendents. I want to thank you for allowing me to appear before the hearing this morning.

MSTA. since its founding in 1956, has always has as a primary goal the welfare of the children. Coupled with this has been the charge to advance the ideal standards and "condition necessary for the greatest efficiency of schools."

Missouri's schools do receive Federal funds. They need them and they want them. But often the requirements that are set forth on the Federal funds, the using of Federal funds, are so difficult and so costly that it restricts the local school district.

Missouri State Teachers Association has always supported local autonomy. Because of this MSTA philosophy, the concept of local autonomy, we have concerns about Federal involvement in the problem of basic skills, especially because the term basic skills is not easily definable. You have many definitions of basic skills, depending on the people that you talk to. Sometimes the phrase is used interchangeably with the idea of minimum competencies and/or accountability.

When speaking of the basics, it is sometimes difficult to pin down just what subjects we do think of as basics. To ask some parents,

"What are the basics?" I'm sure they would say, "Reading, writing, and arithmetic." To others, if we said that we were going back to the basics, they would consider home economics and vocational education as basic. Drivers education? In today's age, that seems to be basic.

My testimony is not based on research through MSTA, but is based on my talks with teachers and many meetings around the State. I have been in education 27 years, I was a classroom teacher of mathematics and am now a vocational counselor.

In visiting with these people around the State, many of my colleagues indicate to me that in a lot of places we have not abandoned the basics, that we are teaching the basics in our schools. All of the schools that I know of have a program and the basics are a fundamental part of that school curriculum.

We have already talked about the BEST test. The State department of education has mentioned this. I feel that in the BEST test, they are doing their best job to develop a test such as this. The question has been asked, should this be mandatory? Again, in just talking with people, no research to back it up, I feel that our people do not object to its being mandatory that the schools give the tests. But I think that you will find widespread opposition to making it a requirement for graduation from high school.

A third comment often heard is let the local school district solve its own problems. It knows the needs of the students and the concerns of the parents better than others.

I would direct your attention to an article that I recently read in the Phi Delta Kappan, January 1979, and I think that it is a good article to look at when we are discussing basic skills. The young man who wrote the article had heard his dad, a newspaperman, talk about his helps' poor spelling. So the young man went home to his mother and asked her for some of his dad's papers from his dad's student days. He took them and pointed out to his dad all the misspelled words that were on the paper. I think the result was that there was not too much more talk about this.

We know that spelling is difficult for a lot of people, and we all know people who can't spell. But is that anything new?

We have already heard from some of the superintendents about the cost to our local districts when programs are started and then dropped. They are good programs, so the district says, "Let's continue them." So it is additional cost for the local districts.

Frequently some of my colleagues state categorical aid is not the answer to education concerns. Federal involvement in the area of financing would not be objected to if general aid grants without strings attached were to be given. It is at the local level where the local district's needs and concern are best known.

Again, talk to the parents, get the parents involved in the problem of basic skills. I was really impressed with the program that they have here at this school. I think that that is great, but again, I think Mr. Harbin brought out the point that all school districts cannot afford this. It is true, I think it would help all of us in all our school districts wherever they are if a program like this could be instigated. I am very much in favor of it, but the money is not there.

Now, back to the concerns of the MSTA:

MSTA's code of ethics reads:

We believe that our first obligation is to the students entrusted in our care. We believe that the purpose of education is to develop each individual for his fullest participation in the American democratic society, to pursue truth, and to seek excellence. We will accept the responsibility of taking the initiative to eliminate all barriers that prevent full access to this unique education for all.

MSTA has a committee called the policy and plans committee. One of the platforms that was presented from this committee this past November to all of our delegates was:

"Local school districts place priority on basic skills in education".

So it is a problem that all of us are thinking about.

Also, this past year in November in our State convention, we had a section dealing with basic skills. In February, when we had an improvement of instruction conference, again a part of our program was, "Back to the Basics Roller Coaster."

My comments have not been based on research or reports, but basically on conversations with others, some personal observations and to some extent on the philosophy and actions of MSTA.

Today's society is changing, constantly and dramatically, and it is difficult to relate today to the past. This is true in the public schools. We are not judging the same things with the same criteria when we compare todays' schools to a previous era. Today more people are in school longer from more varied backgrounds in a more mobile society. The concerns and needs are better known in the local school and community and I suggest that the solution lies there.

Thank you for allowing me to be here today.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Ford.

I have a few questions, and will start with Mr. Rollins and go down the line, the same question to all three of you.

Dr. Brown testified earlier that he believes that staff development programs make the best use of Federal funds. Would you agree?

Dr. ROLLINS. The programs developed by the local school districts staff, is that what you mean?

Senator EAGLETON. No, he says that the best use of Federal money is in staff development so that when the short-term Federal program expires, he has a well-trained staff that can carry on into the future.

Dr. ROLLINS. I understand.

I think that I would be in basic agreement with that because the most vital link, when all is said and done, to a student's success is having a good relationship with the classroom teacher and the person that understands the problems that they have to face. Now, as to the type of program, whether there are certain types of programs that would be more beneficial than others, I don't think that I can speak to that now. But, I would think that an investment in the professional classroom staff would be a good thing.

Ms. CORMACK. Yes, I would have to agree with that. I know, as I told you, in teaching English there were periods when I felt that if my district had had programs that they could have offered to me to become more expert in some areas that would have allowed me to minister to the needs and deficiencies of my students, my district

would have been getting more for their dollar than they were paying to me.

A considersation might be that as moneys are made available to districts to develop staff programs, perhaps a phased out program could be considered so that all of a sudden one day the burden wouldn't be entirely on the district, but over a period of years, more of the financial burden would be shouldered by the local district. If the program were succeeding, then selling that idea to the citizens in that community to vote the money to continue that program certainly wouldn't be the problem that it could be.

Mr. FORD. I am in complete agreement with it.

I participated in the 1960's as a math teacher in some of the summer staff programs in the so-called new math development. I was able to go back and work with Others. I feel that it was a tremendous help to me and to my school and to my students. I was very much in agreement when I heard Dr. Brown testify.

Senator EAGLETON. All three of you state, as individuals and as representatives of your organizations, that you are opposed to a 12th grade competency test which determines whether you get a diploma or not. Is that true?

Ms. CORMACK. That is true.

Mr. FORD. That's right.

Dr. ROLLINS. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, going down the line, do each of you believe that there ought to be some basic skills testing, question one.

Question 2, at what grade level or levels would you suggest that that testing be done?

No. 3, considering the enormous mobility of today's population, should there be a national test or at the very least, a statewide test?

Dr. ROLLINS. First of all, I do think there needs to be some form of testing, not necessarily standardized, but testing in the early grades. I think this will determine a great deal about the potential for problems later on in the school system, I believe that answers two of the questions. Yes, there should be testing and in the early grades.

No, it need not be statewide or nationwide. Part of the dilemma that we face now is a direct result of standardized testing. If we just take a child in school district X, and the teacher determines that there appears to be a reading problem. The answer to that may be as simple as letting that student stay in the second grade, rather than instituting a standardized testing program that tells someone, no matter where they go, that they have a reading problem.

Senator EAGLETON. Miss Cormack?

Ms. CORMACK. Yes, we feel that there sbould be some diagnostic testing on basic skills. But Senator, we feel that this should not be imposed by the State nor should it be imposed by the Federal Government.

Funds for local teachers and committees to design their own diagnostic tests should be early in the grades, with resources and with materials to administer to these variances.

Along with that, Board policies that allow us to address these needs should be—cleaned up—for the lack of a better word. The idea of social promotion has become, or had become so popular during the late 1960's and early 1970's, now it seems to be one that people are questioning. But this is many times not a teacher or principal decision, but a Board decision.

If those deficiencies were dealt with in the 1st, 2nd or 3rd grade, we would not be finding students in large numbers in the 10th, 11th and 12th grade who could not read 6th grade textbooks.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Ford?

Mr. FORD. Just Saturday, I was in a meeting where part of this question was brought to mind at that time. This person said that if we would give the teachers in the first three grades a little more leeway, possibly not have some of the things in those areas that we do now, and let them teach the students to read before they leave that third grade, then a lot of the problems on up through the years would be alleviated.

I think from this that a lot of the teachers do feel, as was mentioned earlier, that preventive is a lot better than remedial. So it should start in the lower grades.

Personally, I see nothing wrong with a test developed on the State level given to the various schools, depending upon how the results are used. If the results are used to send back to the local schools so that they can see how they compare with the rest of the State, not by school district name, but in some way, so that they would see that their school does need some work, and so on, I would not be adverse to it.

I do not like the idea of seeing it in the paper, comparing schools one with another as far as test scores. There are too many things involved.

A reporter asked me just moments ago why I would be against a mandatory test for graduation, regardless of where it came from, State, National, or where. Why would I be so against? There are several reasons, but a couple quickly. Going right back to the student, you and I have taken tests, and there are days when we can do better than others. If it all depended on that, if our whole 12 years depended upon that one test, I think it would put too much pressure on students.

Senator EAGLETON. Don't we have some of that? With the SAT you can't get into many colleges without a rather outstanding result on the SAT and you may not be quite up to that test that day, but that's——

Mr. FORD. That's true. The thing is, as I have seen the SAT, there are certain scores required on it if you want to get into certain colleges, but there are still ways and means for these students to get into a college or university, even though their scores might not be the highest. They might not get their choice, but they still have some leeway there.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you believe that there has been a decline in writing skills in today's elementary and secondary students and do you have a recommendation to make to enhance those writing skills?

Dr. ROLLINS. Yes. I believe that reading and writing skills go together and I have to say—I know that you have heard it a

thousand times before—that if we look at the overriding social pressures on student's today, once they are outside the academic setting of the school, there is very little impetus to read or write. They sit in front of the television and listen, they call somebody on the telephone, they don't sit down as a family and read, they don't write letters, and as long as we have the social pressure against reading and writing, it makes the job of teaching even more difficult.

Ms. CORMACK. Yes, in answer to your question. I can tell you that as a teacher in my first 2 years I had a class size that was enviable in the late 1960's. I had two preparation periods per day to grade essays, to prepare my lessons, to use the resources on campus, and to bring to my students the four classes that I taught.

When I left the classroom 2 years ago, I had increased not only the number of classes that I taught per day, but class by class, my class load was 10 students more per class.

Survival is many times the name of the game, but in those years that is what I had to do in order to cope with those problems.

The first years I taught composition and grammar. I will tell you, there was 1 of me and 24 of them, and I had four classes. I could get a lot of my work done and paid more attention to the assignments that I was preparing and grading than I could in the last years in the classroom. I compensated. My human resources had a point, too, of being available. Instead of two compositions per week, instead of a vocabulary list of 25 words, instead of a reading assignment a day—I could go on and on—I had to compensate my expectations in being able to use my own teaching power and being able to cope with the problems in the classroom.

One thing that has not been mentioned here as a great contributing factor in decreasing writing skills, is that we have become a verbal society. This is something that we have been aware of for some time now, the emphasis has not been on writing. Talking and communication, I have had many students who could read to me a paragraph or two, a story, but then could they interpret it for me. Their reading skills were flawless. But what was the inference of the materials that they had read? And then a look of blankness. How well he reads the words is not an indication how he is analytically absorbing the information and being able to utilize that.

I have some answers I think would be a good start.

Smaller classes, more time with students.

More emphasis on teaching grammar, more emphasis on teaching sentence construction and writing rather than interpreting literature. Ask most any English teacher what she had rather do. In my case I loved working with Shakespearean plays.

If I had had my choice, my classes would have been nothing but reading, thinking, verbalizing, and communicating. In the first 2 years, there was a lot of emphasis on this, I was expected to cover vast amounts of interpretive literature, At the same time, vast amounts of time should have been spent on sentence diagraming, basic writing skills. But the pressure was not there. We assumed that the student had these skills, let's get into their minds and communicate.

When I left the classroom, that was not the case, we were swinging back to the basics and I was spending much more time dia-

graming sentences, teaching writing skills at the very, very basic level.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Ford?

Mr. FORD. As I said, I am a former math teacher, and so writing is not my speciality, or the language arts. I do know from listening to English teachers talk for the past several years, one of the things that I've heard them say has been mentioned, the fact that with 30 to 35 students in a class there was no way they could have them write as if they had 15 or 20 in the class. I think that this has been a problem for the past several years, as money becomes a little less, class size goes up a little, and these teachers have more students to work with. That is one thing that has caused this problem in writing skills. It is much easier to read and verbalize than it is for that student to write it.

My daughter, now a sophomore, had a very demanding English teacher in the ninth grade. At first I was apprehensive, I thought that he was demanding too much. She would come home with this to do, that to do, and something to write. But because of his demanding and his taking the time to work with these students in writing, I think that at the end of the ninth grade my daughter and all of her class had a much, much better than average writing ability. They had an English teacher who was not afraid to bear down on this and make them do it.

But this is a big problem, because of class size and crowding, teachers are going away from this.

Let me tell you something that bothers me. I am going to throw this out and it may make someone in the crowd mad, but when I see public officials, doctors, and so on, which many of our students see, they say, "Look, they are making money" whoever it is, "and I can't read their name on something." Students see this. And maybe we are setting some bad examples for students.

Senator PELL. Going back to the question, whether teachers teach the test, isn't this a reflection on the teacher's integrity if they do teach too much for the test?

Dr. ROLLINS. Teachers are rebelling against the idea of doing that, but we have attended meetings for 2 or 3 years now, and that's what they are told.

Senator EAGLETON. Who tells them?

Dr. ROLLINS. The department of elementary and secondary education personnel. Something like, "That's not wrong. This test is good and if you teach to it, the students are going to know those things and you should not have any qualms at all about teaching to this test."

Senator PELL. I think that it is a question of balance. If the teacher just teaches exclusively for the test, I think that would reflect a little bit on him or her.

The question of the test, which I think would be a good idea if it were voluntary on a national basis, would allow the teachers in one part of Missouri to know how they compare with the teachers in the other part of Missouri. It is a pretty good idea if a student who graduates from a Puerto Rican school, a Chicago school, a Rhode Island school has some idea of how he or she is going to work out in competition in our country.

I am wondering what your feeling would be to the same thing as a voluntary test on a national basis? Would any of you care to comment on that?

Ms. CORMACK. I thought that we had really taken care of that before in our answers.

Senator PELL. Yes.

Ms. CORMACK. I really don't feel that——

Senator PELL. Voluntary, though, we are talking about.

Ms. CORMACK. I'm sorry, you said voluntary.

Senator PELL. Strictly voluntary where those students who wanted to take the test could sign up for it, those who didn't wouldn't.

Ms. CORMACK. I wouldn't have any problem with it being a voluntary test. The only point that I would worry about was when does it not become voluntary? When is the competition level between groups so urgent that it becomes mandatory.

Senator PELL. That in itself would initiate the pressure on the school committee in the design and development of the curriculum to make sure that there is proper emphasis upon the——

Ms. CORMACK. Well, we took care of the problem by eliminating "mandatory," so this would not be something that we would shut the door on. More information on that would be welcome.

Senator PELL. What would be your reaction?

Mr. FORD. So far I have two questions there. Your first question on the idea of the teachers teaching to a test, I have to agree with you. I have seen local administrations bring pressure to bear in trying to grade teachers on how well their students did on a test. Then when I see it in the newspapers, that you are trying to grade schools on how well their students perform—so you have pressure to do this. I would really like to see the day when our teachers would not be under this pressure, therefore, no one would be tempted to do it.

I am definitely against it. I go back to the time when I first started teaching and we had a contest on a district basis in math and English and American History. Those contests were dropped because so many teachers started teaching for the contest only so that their students would do the best in everything, rather than teaching content throughout the year hoping that their students had been taught the right thing.

I would have no qualms on a voluntary test, even on a national level, when a school district wanted to see how well their students compared in various areas. Now, if the results were put in the papers that we didn't compare well with so-and-so in Rhode Island, then I would be against it.

But as far as the local school district's use of it for the local school district and their students, to identify problems and to compare, I would not be against it.

Dr. ROLLINS. The test doesn't seem to serve a diagnostic purpose at that level. It appears to be one of comparison and the students are going to receive the comparison of how they ranked in the country as they go into the job market or colleges.

I would much prefer to see a test that could be utilized by the classroom teacher in determining areas that the child needs extra help.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you Dr. Rollins, Ms. Cormack and Mr. Ford for coming forward. Thank you very much.

All right, Mrs. Susan Hudson, Effectiveness Training, Inc., accompanied by Ms. Connie Halstead.

STATEMENT OF MRS. SUSAN HUDSON, EFFECTIVENESS TRAINING, INC.; ACCOMPANIED BY MS. CONNIE HALSTEAD

Senator EAGLETON. Good morning, Mrs. Hudson, whom I know and very much respect, and Mrs. Halstead. You may proceed.

Mrs. HUDSON. Senator Pell and Senator Eagleton, welcome to Missouri again, Senator Pell, and of course, we are always glad to have you back home, Senator Eagleton. We are glad to be here, and we appreciate your efforts in the field of education.

We also appreciate all of the input we have gotten indicating a concern for education from people at all levels. We would like to acknowledge the contribution we believe Dr. Thomas Gordon has made with his effectiveness training model and the contribution of Noel Burch, who has worked extensively in the area of teacher effectiveness training.

I am from Weston, Mo., a rural community north of Kansas City. My background includes a B.A. in psychology from George Washington University and graduate hours in the area of communication. More important is the fact that my husband and I have four children in the first, sixth, and ninth grades and a college sophomore. I have worked with both students and teachers through many years of PTA as well as in workshops dealing with communication and drug abuse prevention sponsored by PTA and by Tri-County Mental Health Center where I serve on the board of advisors for the center and on the board of the Mental Health Association. In addition, I have been active in politics at the local, county, and congressional levels, have served as a study director for our church women's group and am presently teaching classes in parent effectiveness training and effectiveness training for women.

Connie Halstead of Kansas City, Mo., is appearing with me today. She has a B.S. in education from the University of Missouri, has done graduate work in the fields of psychology and communication, has taught in school systems in Nevada, Ohio, and Kansas, and is an authorized instructor of parent effectiveness training, teacher effectiveness training, youth effectiveness training and effectiveness training for women. She has also been active in community mental health programs and politics on a local and State level. She and her husband are parents of a seventh grade son, a ninth grade daughter and a son who is currently serving with the U.S. Navy.

Yes, we hear the concern arising around the level of basic skills achievement, and we hear it from students and their parents, teachers, and employers.

Our input centers on the nature of the basic skills achievement problem and on a positive approach to this problem which has proven effective.

First, we want to talk about the crucial importance of teacher interpersonal skills as related to student achievement.

We are going to present the 30-hour training model, teacher effectiveness training, which teaches the skills that teachers need to relate to students to become more effective.

We will show how this model does, in fact, increase the learning of basic skills and also promotes the very ideals of democracy which we espouse but find so hard to make work in reality.

And we will give you some evidence to support these claims.

When the phrase, "basic skills" is used, reading, writing, and arithmetic come to mind. In the Basic Skills Improvement Act, writing becomes a component of effective communication. Effective communication has finally been declared to be a basic skill. This is a key point, for although we aren't used to thinking of it as one of the "basics," it is perhaps the most fundamental skill of all. Effective communication is the crucial factor in all relationships, and thus is basic to every aspect of our existence.

To get specifically to the classroom and the problem of student achievement, it is important to realize that teaching and learning are two separate functions. A teacher may be teaching, but that doesn't always mean the student is learning. There is not necessarily a one-to-one correlation.

So, if the teaching-learning processes are to work effectively, we have to make some kind of bridge or link between the teacher and the student. Communication is what makes that happen, and we know the necessary communication skills that are required by teachers to become effective in creating those links and building those bridges.

Therefore, we are not focusing on what kind of test to give or what to teach. We want to focus on the interpersonal skills that teachers need to relate to students so they will be in a better place to learn whatever it is that the teacher is trying to teach.

Many teachers and administrators have said, and Connie has had the same experience, that nowhere in their training are they prepared to deal with the reality of the classroom. They are taught content and theory, not how to teach, how to relate to students, or how to handle discipline. They aren't trained in the communication process. So, they spend a great deal of their time coping with the management of the class and feeling more like babysitters and policemen than teachers.

What we have seen and heard, both in our own experience and in talking with administrators, teachers, parents, and students, indicates that the major problem is that very few people at any level know any alternatives to the old power-based struggles for authority—the "I win, you lose" method of authoritarianism or the "you win, I lose" method of permissiveness. And we have seen the disastrous effects of both of those methods on the entire system.

When students and teachers, or any of us for that matter, are caught up in power plays, there are three ways to respond: fight, flight or submit. We develop coping methods around these responses such as stress symptoms, cheating, tuning out, alcohol and drug abuse, truancy, apathy, violence against property and people, dropping out of school and the ultimate dropout, suicide. So, in many cases, besides not providing an environment suitable for

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teaching-learning to occur, our schools are inadvertently driving both students and teachers to develop destructive coping mechanisms to survive.

In teacher effectiveness training teachers learn how to develop authority through influence rather than through coercion, and young people, in fact all ages, respond to influence with positive responsible behaviors as opposed to the self-destructive coping behaviors they are driven to use against coercion. When teachers are able to empathize with their students, when they can confront their students in a way which doesn't put them down and which motivates them to change their disruptive behavior, when they are able to problem solve, using a method where everyone is truly motivated to cooperate, a climate of support and trust develops, and the teacher is able to create much more quality time for teaching and learning actually to occur.

The classroom becomes a living model of democratic process. This is important because schools are systems, and how a child relates to that system and is treated within that system is as much a part of his education as the cognitive skills of reading, math, et cetera.

The skills which enable that to happen are defined and taught in the effectiveness training model and are so basic to our very human experience that they cut across the spectrum of age, race, geography, sex, ability and social strata. While accomplishing the most complex objectives, the rationale of effective communication in human relationships and its application to education is so simple as to be almost universally overlooked, and certainly is not generally accepted by the public.

However, research has been done with teachers on a national level which supports the theory that teachers' interpersonal skills and students' improved learning and achievement are directly related.

In a recent pilot project which was funded under title IV-C, 80 percent of the teachers and administrators in the Newport News school system received teacher effectiveness training. The exciting results continue to support that theory.

This study shows that students taught by teachers trained in T.E.T. demonstrated significant gains in their math and verbal skills as measured by CRT math and verbal tests. They achieved scores on SRA math achievement tests that were significantly higher than those taught by non-T.E.T. teachers.

They achieved a significantly higher mean on the Gates McGinitie reading test.

Teachers who received T.E.T. improved significantly in their ability to listen and to respond in ways which facilitate learning. These skills have already been related to significant gain in student achievement.

In addition to increased achievement, absenteeism dropped 30 percent, a dramatic result which far surpassed even their prediction.

Along with this and other research, we have the experience of thousands of teachers already trained in T.E.T. to support the assertion that when the T.E.T. skills of listening, confronting, and conflict resolution through problem solving, are employed, disci-

pline problems also drop, even as much as 90 percent, as teachers and students begin to work together in ways that are mutually satisfying.

The evaluation of these findings on the Newport News project was carried out by Dr. David Aspy, former consultant to the House Committee on Education. As a result of his evaluation, he has recommended that the T.E.T. program be continued and expanded in the Newport News schools; and also, since the findings from this program are significant to a large number of schools throughout the Nation, the information should be disseminated as widely as possible through articles in professional and educational periodicals and presentations at national professional meetings. A complete and detailed evaluation of the Newport News study is on file in the T.E.T. Center, Gatewood Building, 1241 Gatewood Avenue, Newport News, Va. 23601, phone (804) 595-4344.

There is much agreement that something is wrong, and T.E.T. is certainly not the only answer. But we believe that results have shown it provides the tools of interpersonal skills which teachers can use to help increase the level of student achievement and to create a model of democratic living in the classroom.

T.E.T. can be the fulcrum used to move our schools from training places for self-destructive coping behaviors to training places for democracy where students and teachers cooperate in learning and growing together. The great impact this will have on the future is the evolution of a society which has been trained in a process that facilitates finding creative solutions to all problems, creative answers to questions in all aspects of life.

The assistance that we would like to ask of this group is that you implement title II, part A, section 209, and disseminate this information that T.E.T. works; that you support grant requests for effectiveness training programs; that you support the purpose stated in title II, part A, section 201(5) which encourages involvement of the private sector by making them eligible for grants; and that you consider using a proven tool in this area, thereby saving money that you would otherwise spend in developing new programs.

We sincerely hope that your committee will give further attention and full support to this program as it considers all the testimony presented at these hearings.

We would like to say again how much we appreciate the opportunity to give this testimony. Thank you very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mrs. Hudson. What recommendation do you have specifically with respect to the subject of reading, writing, and mathematics skills?

Mrs. HUDSON. We recommend that T.E.T. be implemented in teachers training and through inservice training programs for those teachers already in the field. By using T.E.T. skills, teachers create an environment which is conducive to learning so that children are able to reach higher levels of skills achievement.

Senator EAGLETON. One of our witnesses at a preceding hearing was the author of a book, The Literacy Hoax. His name was Paul Copperman. He said that the problems of reading, writing, and math were very easily resolved, it was all a matter of classroom

discipline. He says a little more than that, but that is his major point.

Mrs. HUDSON. I haven't read that yet.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me ask you, on a scale of 1 to 10, is discipline—or on a percentage scale, is it a third, half, or how would you quantify discipline as an ingredient in the reading, writing, and math skills of America's schools?

Mrs. HALSTEAD. I would respond to that as a former classroom teacher and say that until I had the cooperation of my students, I knew that I couldn't teach them anything. And knowing how to get their cooperation is what I didn't know how to do. So I would put discipline high on the continuum as one of the—if not the most important thing. And when you say discipline, I qualify that to mean cooperation. Until teachers and children can work together in a cooperative relationship, children are not going to learn no matter what wonderful curriculum we might have for them. I sincerely and deeply believe this. And I have seen this work.

Senator EAGLETON. Senator Pell?

Senator PELL. You have described the wonders of T.E.T. Could you take just a moment to tell us what is T.E.T.? What does it do? How long does it take?

Mrs. HUDSON. It is a 30-hour training course to train teachers to use specific principles and skills to improve the quality of teacher-student relationships and deal constructively with discipline problems. The method of teaching it includes lecture, workbook exercises, role-plays, and dyad and small group exercises.

Senator PELL. Is it in a classroom, in a laboratory?

Mrs. HALSTEAD. It can be anywhere there is an instructor who has been taught the skills to teach the course. It is offered by a network of independent professional instructors trained and authorized by Effective Training, Inc., 531 Stevens Avenue, Solana Beach, Calif. 92075, phone (714) 481-8121. School administrators, teachers, and/or counselors can be trained by Effectiveness Training, Inc., to conduct their own inservice programs within their particular systems. Graduate credit can be earned through the University of LaVerne, School of Continuing Education, 1950 Third Street, LaVerne, Calif. 91750. T.E.T. is also being offered for graduate and/or undergraduate credit at a number of colleges and universities throughout the country.

Effectiveness Training, Inc., is a private corporation that develops and markets educational programs for individuals and organizations. It was founded by Dr. Thomas Gordon who is also its president. For further information contact Effectiveness Training, Inc. and refer to the Senate subcommittee hearing material. We have a brief description of the course to give to you.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mrs. Hudson and Mrs. Halstead.

Senator PELL. Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Our final witness in today's hearing will be Dr. Wade Robinson, president of Cemrel, Inc.

STATEMENT OF DR. WADE ROBINSON, PRESIDENT, CEMREL, INC.

Dr. ROBINSON. For those of you who do not know what Cemrel is, it stands for Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory.

You can see why we shorten it to Cemrel. By the time you answer the telephone, everyone has hung up, they are no longer interested in the question that they had to begin with.

I am pleased to be here. We are a very junior partner in this particular enterprise that you have in mind as one of the remaining regional education laboratories, we have been concerned for some time with the development of material and teaching techniques that will help school districts to deal with the problems of basic education, as well the arts, humanities, and some other subjects. I think probably I would have to say to begin with that those of us who benefited from participation in the late 1950's and early 1960's in the beginning of Federal efforts to do something about improving education probably worked up what I would now consider to be a rather defective strategy. At that point we had a strategy that assumed that the potential consumer, the local educator, was a rational decisionmaker who had the time to read, listen, and ponder the new improvement, the improvements of research, and have the ability to translate those into effective courses of action in his own school system. Moreover, that meant that the communication system was one way, it was from the producer to the potential consumer, who in some instances, didn't know that you had bought something for him or her.

In many instances, the teacher was ignored in that particular process.

I believe that our experience has shown that we have to do it in a very different way. The only way that the system will work effectively is if there is truly a genuine partnership to begin with. If that partnership is effective, it must include teachers, it must include parents, it must include superintendents of schools, it must include the State departments of education.

One of the problems that it occurs to me that we are faced with is the fact that there is no close or real consensus on what the goals of education are in almost any setting and without the goals, some clear processes that accomplish those goals, and an effective means of assessing the degree to which the goals have been accomplished for a certain group, it is very difficult to know where you are. It is even more difficult for the school system to allocate its resources in any particular way.

There is a great deal of controversy over testing of one sort or another. You have heard a lot of testimony this morning to the effect to which I would concur: That what is really missing now are tests that sample the means of learning that we have agreed are important that do so in a systematic and thorough way which can then feed information back to the school so that they know how to do something about it.

As it is now, if you get a achievement test score result where your school, in comparison to West Overshoe, you don't know much about it except your comparative standing.

To use teacher-made tests, and teacher-made tests are very good for feedback to teachers, you know what the students know and what they do not. But you don't know where you stand with regard to the general subject matter or with anyone else in the rest of the world.

There is a dilemma there, and I think that is the problem that research and development have to cope with.

Senator EAGLETON. You said there is a dilemma and that is what research is going to have to cope with. What is your recommendation?

Dr. ROBINSON. That they begin coping with it.

Senator EAGLETON. Is your recommendation the more informed development of teacher-created tests, or——

Dr. ROBINSON. I would suggest that that is very important.

But I also think that the main reference testing should also be developed and that–well, for example, take a case in point. The assumption is that a skill is basic by virtue of the fact it is a prerequisite to following learning, or some set of psychological habituations that make other things happen more easily, or it is basic in the sense that you are going to need it to cope effectively in the larger environment, in the world, as a citizen, as a taxpayer, and wage earner, or its important because it is a skill that is required for a set of learning simply in order to be a better human being.

Now, those are three very different kinds of problems. When one is testing the degree to which one–a school is teaching those, there has to be some sort of agreement as to what it is that one is testing for, and then a sampling of that behavior.

We have spent a lot of time and a lot of Federal dollars developing a mathematics program, for example, which stands on the shoulders of the new mathematics. It does a very effective job of teaching computation and reasoning, and problem skills. It does this equally well in Philadelphia, in Detroit, in St. Louis, but it doesn't look like a basic skills program and it doesn't have a textbook that children use, therefore, it is a little difficult for some schools to see quite how to use it. It is—that curriculum is, in effect, the equivalent of the domain of mathematics that ought to be taught in the elementary schools, kindergarten through grade 6. So when one tests from that, when one samples that, one is sampling the kinds of things that prominent mathematitions and teachers believe ought to be taught, as well as the computation skills.

Senator EAGLETON. Is there such a thing for K through six in reading?

Dr. ROBINSON. Yes; I think there is. The material that Swirl developed in Los Angeles. There is some material that has been developed at the Learning Research Development Center at the University of Pittsburgh by a woman named Isabel Beck. Yes, there is some consensus there as well.

Senator EAGLETON. Consensus among what groups of people?

Dr. ROBINSON Us, professional research people, and people from the academic communities.

Senator EAGLETON. Including elementary teachers who teach at the levels K through sixth?

Dr. ROBINSON. Yes; those who have used these materials, examined them, I would have to say, yes; that is true.

There are—your next question will probably be, why isn't it being used?

Senator EAGLETON. Yes.

Dr. ROBINSON. Both the materials that were developed in reading by Swirl in Los Angeles have been used quite widely and are being used much more widely. They are being produced by Ginn. The materials that I am speaking about in mathematics have not yet been finished. They are not completed, so are not yet being published. They are being tested by about a thousand teachers across the country at this point. They will be widely used, they are not yet quite ready.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me ask you Senator Pell's question, do you think that there ought to be a nationwide test available through, I guess, the U.S. Commissioner of Education that students may voluntarily take as they see fit? If you think that there should be such a thing, should they arrange a test at various grade levels or—what do you think?

Dr. ROBINSON. To test for what?

Senator EAGLETON. Well, take the K through sixth test that you say now has some usage, but was designed by professional researchers as well as classroom teachers, that tests those basic skills in K through sixth. Should the U.S. Commissioner of Education consider putting his seal of approval on such a test and let everybody nationwide who wants to take it, take it.

Dr. ROBINSON. OK. May I correct a misunderstanding that I caused you. We do not have, in fact, a test that tests all K through sixth program. We have a math program which is the domain, which, if sampled by a test, would in fact be adequate.

I would have no particular concern of such tests if they were voluntary as you suggest. They would provide students with information about where they stand with regard to some norm—some group of youngsters.

The difficulties of designing such a test are another matter, but I think that they might perform against the function, as you know, the SAT's are voluntary, and they are a national norm, they are not quite so responsive to changes in curriculum as you would like.

We did a study of the test-score decline, I believe the first one that was done, which was published, and one of the first things that we found——

Senator EAGLETON. Was the study done in relationship to the Willard Wirtz Commission?

Dr. ROBINSON. Prior to that. It was used as a part of that report.

One of the things that we discovered is that the tests frequently that are used, the SAT for example, doesn't switch as curriculum is switched. They don't change that much. We found that growing in the late—early 1970's, a growing proliferation of diverse courses and a falling off of enrollment in the core courses in high school that may account for at least some of the difficulties there, since the test does not measure those kinds of learnings. Moreover, as you know, the dropout rate was halved in the United States from 1950 until the mid-1960's, there was about a 50-percent dropout rate in high school. That means that we have about 25 percent more kids remaining in school now than ever did before who never would have taken those tests. That has some effect on it. But it is very clear that those tests do not test those kinds of things that the school teaches and does not provide the kind of diagnostic or infor-

mation to schools that they could use to improve instruction. That is, I think, what teachers were talking about this morning.

If you had a dollar to put anywhere, where would you put it? You would put it where you could get the information. That would be extremely helpful to the school to change its program in order to do a more effective job.

Senator EAGLETON. You stated in your remarks that there could be three purposes of testing. One, to advance to a higher academic level, another that tells you something in the hopes of improvement.

Dr. ROBINSON. No; that was my definition of basic skills.

Senator EAGLETON. Yes, I remember. There was a third one, what was the third one?

Dr. ROBINSON. That there are some things that you ought to know, basic fundamental things.

Senator EAGLETON. I can see that if you were testing for one thing, one set of questions might be asked, another set for something else. Certainly, if you were instructing to a test, to get into college, so on and so forth, why couldn't one, overall test be devised that could be put into three subparts? Maybe there could be hour 1, hour 2, hour 3? Why wouldn't that be possible and useful?

And considering the mobility of today's population, both intrastate and interstate—become a uniform test nationwide?

Dr. ROBINSON. Why?

Senator EAGLETON. Why not?

Dr. ROBINSON. Well, that's an interesting question. Well, I personally wouldn't have any problem with it, but I think that a lot of people would. There are some technical difficulties, but those could probably be handled. The degree to which you mandate—and by testing, you do mandate instruction—the degree to which you mandate similar instruction means the degree to which you homogenize the American population. Now, if that is one of the goals that you have in mind, then——

Senator EAGLETON. I am asking some of these as devil's advocate.

Dr. ROBINSON. Yes, OK. But the point is, I think, that degree to which one expects certain similarities of outcome, and would by virtue of that, puts in certain similarities of instruction, you then tend to homogenize. And in a country that says it values pearlistic society it becomes offensive.

I don't know the question of social and public policy, about where you reach that point or how you make that determination. I suspect that lies at the heart of the controversies about this problem. It is quite a difficult political and social problem to solve.

Senator EAGLETON. If a public school system called you in as a consultant, getting away from the national—let's say a medium-sized public school system in Anywhere, U.S.A. and the superintendent said, "Look, I'm not really sure about this, but I have nagging worry in my mind and somehow I don't think the students in my system are really mastering the basic skills. What tests or testing systems would you recommend that I utilize to try to get the facts as to this? And what grade levels should I administer these to?"

Dr. ROBINSON. Well, to begin with, if it were restricted to the school system, I think that by and large the teachers have testified

this morning and are probably right. That is, most teachers will know the 10 to 15 percent who aren't going to make it. Now, what they may not know is what to do about that. So I would provide diagnostic testing. If a kid is behind in reading and has some problems there, I would give the kinds of tests that diagnosed the specific kinds of problems that child has, or that group of children has. But it would not require an extensive system of testing to find out if the kid had the problem to begin with. It is the nature of the problem what we do about it, that is where the test is required. And that requires diagnostic testing. I don't happen to have all those tests in my head at the moment, but they could be found. That would be the way that I would go.

Senator EAGLETON. I don't know where you were in your remarks when I started to interrupt you, but perhaps you can get your mind back on track. I'm sorry that I got you off.

Dr. ROBINSON. That's all right. I was on the glory road to tell you all the marvelous things that we do, if everybody would just follow our advice, the world would be so much better off.

I wasn't actually going that far, but simply wanted to say that the news is not all bad. I want to reassure everybody that it is not as bad as we sometime think. In fact, with regard to the basic skills, reading and mathematics, there is no doubt that more children than ever before are as a matter of fact mastering those basic skills, in the early grades at least. What is lost in the discussion of test score decline is the fact that from kindergarten to grade 4, test scores have gone up, and they continue to rise.

Senator EAGLETON. This is in both reading and math?

Dr. ROBINSON. Yes; across the country.

Now it is no accident, I think, you and Senator Pell ought to take a little credit for that because that is where the Federal effort has gone. Largely the Federal effort in title I and in Headstart and in the research and development labs and centers has gone to the early grades of the elementary school, including the curriculum and materials there. That is one of the reasons for it.

I think that I would like to say just one or two other things, and that is, something that will come as no surprise to teachers in the audience is that I think that we know from our school improvement experience that all things being equal, children learn what they are taught, they tend to learn a lot of other things, but in school, they learn what they are taught. And that has some severe implications for what teachers ought to do and what the school system stresses.

We know that by and large, teachers do a good job teaching. We also know that they do a much better job of teaching when they have the tools, the materials, the training, the other resources at their disposal, when they have a superintendent who is sympathetic and supports the efforts to do the job properly.

We also know that schools, like any other relatively large organization, contain a certain amount of inertia and are rather difficult to change easily. If you look at the United States, you would say, "There just is no one button that you can push anywhere that brings about change in all of the school systems, you can't even push the 50-State button and get any significant change across very quickly." And that leads one to say that you have to get into

partnerships with the schools in a dialog where you establish what is important with teachers and administrators and parents, and then we can begin to do the research and development work and bring to their attention the already existing R. & D. work that makes sense and can be used and translate that into effective programs. We can also do the new R. & D. work that needs to be done, for which there will always be a continuous demand.

I fault my colleagues and myself for having been too—rational?—in the sense that we made the assumption long ago that simply because you have a better mousetrap, everybody wanted it. In many cases, we failed to tell you that we had it. In economist terms, we have stimulated the supply side of research and development, but we have not stimulated the demand side, and that is a real problem; it is not getting out and being used. Part of it is because there is a resistence, because of it is because it is threatening, part is because people don't know about it, and part simply because it is an interesting and awkward situation—research and development labs are supported by your tax dollars, and one or another Government agency through the Office of Education or the National Institute of Education and a laboratory such as mine will agree, because there is a certain need that we can demonstrate to do a certain piece of R. & D. work, which then we are supposed to give to the schools, and they are going to say, "Wow! That's great, let's use it." So that the consumer frequently has very little voice in what is being purchased for them and it is very difficult, and that turns out to be a bit of a problem.

It is not a problem that the schools have. It was a problem in the design of the system to begin with, and is now being corrected.

Senator EAGLETON. You say that it is being corrected, are we really getting the new information that is out there? There is always a lot of original thought, but how do we pull something together that someone has been working on in Seattle, another fellow has worked on it in Albuquerque—is this information getting out here to Warren Brown, the superintendent?

Dr. ROBINSON. I hope that it is, but I doubt it. But I think that there are mechanisms that are being constructed that will get it out; yes. An organization of teachers working with teachers in the local district, the idea being that the kinds of questions that they have and the kinds of information that we have ought to be put together, and then get circulated down. It is a big system to get that much information through.

We also, in our own instance, find that in elementary schools for example, teachers frequently have a lot of questions about the teaching of reading. They are not quite sure about how to handle this problem or another, and the typical response to that has been to find out what researchers say about the teaching of reading and translate that into English and then write a pamphlet and give it to the teacher, and say, "Now you don't have a problem." But that doesn't work, it never did work.

What we have attempted to do in the hope that it will somewhat more closely approximate the problem is to ask teachers what problems they have, what questions do they have? And supervisors, superintendents, and others. Then go and study the research and meet with researchers to find out what answers does research have

for those kinds of questions. Then write that up in a very dramatic fashion and present it to teachers in book form so that they get specific answers.

It does an interesting thing. Of the 75—we interviewed a large number of teachers, and they came up with 75 questions that they would really like answers to. We got the U.S. leading experts in reading research together and we examined all of the research; there were answers for 28 and there were unambiguous answers for about 10. The others were answers where researchers were on either side of the question so that what you got was opinion A balanced against opinion B about how you would solve that problem. There was an unanswered residue of questions. These are questions that teachers have that are legitimate that ought to be researched that have not been. We have to figure out how to get that into the consciousness and operating minds of researchers so that those questions get worked on and are answered.

Senator EAGLETON. What does the research show, if anything, about writing skills?

Dr. ROBINSON. Very little, very little indeed. I think we are only beginning to turn research work toward that area. There was some work in the late 1920's and early 1930's and then it just sort of dropped out. There isn't much that is being done.

We have a program that we have just started ourselves last year with the National Assessment of Educational Progress who are going to test writing skills and are going to provide a sample across the country.

Senator EAGLETON. Who is doing this?

Dr. ROBINSON. The National Assessment of Education Progress.

Senator EAGLETON. Who are they?

Dr. ROBINSON. They are headquartered now in Denver, they are supported by the National Institute of Education. They were supported by the National Center for Educational Statistic. They have the job of taking the temperature of the country in learning of 9-year-olds, 13 and 17's, I believe, every year in two subject areas. They do a sample every year around the country. They're going to be measuring writing instruction or writing soon and—well, people are going to be shocked at what they find.

What we have done is to work, using the kinds of tests we know they are going to use to look at how do teachers, in fact, in the elementary grade assess writing and how do they instruct kids in writing. We are working with the University of Iowa, and one-third of the school systems in Iowa to institute a program to do something about that. Teach teachers how to assess writing more adequately and then how to develop a writing curriculum in the elementary grades.

Since we are responsible for a geographic region of 10 States: Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and Missouri, which contains 28 percent of the elementary and secondary school population in the country. The people in those 10 States, the school systems in those 10 States will be watching this experiment that we have under way and are ready to implement it in their own districts if it should prove as effective as we hope that it will.

That is the kind of thing that is beginning to happen where there is a partnership of teachers, State departments, universities, the lab, where something is found that works reasonably well, we can put it into effect in the schools, get some leverage out of it.

That is a very important and critical problem, the problem of how to use resources intelligently in this particular case because, I don't know how much money we will spend on that project all told, probably no more than $300,000 or $400,000. But the districts that we have a concern about last year spent $24 billion for education. And so the problem is how do you leverage your $300,000 or $400,000 to affect that much larger pool of capital that is out there to be used.

Senator EAGLETON. Your operation faces the dilemma that has haunted humanity since the beginning of time: How does one get information that some person or persons has assembled and distribute that and have it appreciated or implemented in other parts of the country. It is a very difficult process.

I am also on the HEW Appropriation Subcommittee. We had the National Institutes of Health testifying the other day, including the Director of the National Medical Library. Millions of dollars go into the National Medical Library, some marvelous breakthroughs. But how do we get the knowledge that is in that library to Dr. X in St. Louis or Dr. Y in Kansas City? I know that you are struggling with it.

Dr. ROBINSON. I hope that this rather simple-minded notion of partnership will help. The question, of course, is how many exchanges can you have? Education in the United States is so loosely coupled and decentralized that it is very difficult since the teacher is the equivalent of a craftsman in his or her own classroom and makes an awful lot of the decisions that take place. That teacher has to be informed somehow and the process of getting to that number of teachers is an extremely difficult one.

Senator EAGLETON. Forgive me, Dr. Robinson, but I am going to have to cut you off there. I am due in Central St. Louis at 1:30, so will have to terminate at this point.

I want to thank you, Doctor, and all of our witnesses for their participation today. Again, my thanks to our host, Dr. Brown and the Ferguson-Florissant School District.

That will conclude today's hearing on this subject matter.

[Whereupon, at 1:10 p.m. the hearing in the above-entitled matter was closed.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

THURSDAY, MARCH 15, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES
OF THE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Washington, D.C.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 9:40 a.m., 6226 Dirksen Senate Office Building, Senator Tom Eagleton presiding pro tempore.

Present: Senators Eagleton and Pell.

Senator EAGLETON. Good morning, ladies and gentlemen.

The Subcommittee on Education of the Senate Labor and Human Resources Committee is in session to continue its hearings on basic skills achievement.

We are honored today to have two very distinguished witnesses, the first of which will be A. Bartlett Giamatti, the president of Yale University, and he will be followed by the Honorable Willard Wirtz, former Secretary of Labor and, of more pertinence to today's proceedings, the chairman of a blue-ribbon panel which has studied the recent decline in Scholastic Aptitude Test scores.

The subcommittee opened this series of hearings in Washington a month ago, with a hearing which vividly demonstrated the broad range of expert opinion on declining basic skills achievement. At that hearing, we heard from three witnesses. The first was Paul Copperman, author of "The Literacy Hoax," who attributed much of the blame for declining basic skills achievement to legal and bureaucratic interference in local school policies.

The next witness was Dr. Rudolph Flesch, author of the best seller in the 1950's, "Why Johnny Can't Read," who said the source of the problem wasn't so much bureaucracy as the methods of teaching.

The third witness of that day was Dr. Harold Howe, a former U.S. Commissioner of Education, who told us the decline in basic skills achievement is exaggerated, and that by and large we can be proud of American education's track record.

Earlier this week, on Monday, Senator Pell and I visited Florissant, Mo., a suburb of St. Louis, for the second hearing. On our first venture into the field, we heard from school administrators, teachers, students and parents about the problems they encounter in teaching and mastering basic skills.

Today, we continue with the two distinguished witnesses who will, I know, provide new thoughts for the subcommittee on how Government can best assist educators at all levels in promoting achievement and excellence in our schools

During its last session, the Congress authorized a new basic skills program as part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments of 1978. This program is designed to support both States and local school districts in expanding and improving their basic skills education efforts. The focus of these hearings is to define the most appropriate assistance the Federal Government can provide to local educators. In order to create a real impact with a limited amount of Federal money, we must have a clear understanding of the nature and extent of the problems, of the various approaches educators are using to deal with those problems, and of the applicability of these approaches in diverse learning situations all across the country.

I will count these hearings as a success if they can give to the American people and to the Congress a clear and balanced view of the current basic skills achievement situation in our schools, and if they can provide practical wisdom and operational guidance for those who will administer the new basic skills title of the ESEA amendments. For me, personally, the inclusion of that special section on reading, writing and computing skills was a very satisfying, in fact a very proud, achievement. It represents the first time all three skills have been addressed by Congress in specific education legislation. I look forward to maximizing the effectiveness of this program in any way that I can, and I hope these hearings will be a vehicle toward that goal.

So, I am delighted to introduce our first witness who, as I said, is Dr. A. Bartlett Giamatti, president of Yale. He has been on the Yale faculty since 1966. From 1970 to 1972, he served as Master of Ezra Stiles College and from 1976 to 1978, he was director of the Division of Humanities at Yale.

A footnote: At age 40, he is the youngest president of Yale in more than 200 years, and although it is not on his credentials, his most distinguished credential is the fact that he is a devoted baseball fan and I share his devoutness in that regard.

STATEMENT OF A. BARTLETT GIAMATTI, PRESIDENT OF YALE UNIVERSITY

Dr. GIAMATTI. Thank you very much, sir.

Mr. Chairman, thank you for your invitation to appear here today to discuss basic skills achievement among our Nation's students. This is my first appearance before a committee of Congress—such privileges hitherto were not part of my experience as a teacher of English literature and foreign languages. I am honored by your invitation.

In January 1976, before I ceased actively to be a professor of English and comparative literature at Yale, I wrote a short piece setting forth my own views on the demise of the study of languages and the decline in the writing skills of English, and I submit this article for inclusion in the record of your hearing.

I continue to believe that language, in its various forms, is essential to all education, especially to the arts and humanities, and that the arts and humanities, with their various languages, are essential to the health and sense of purpose of a civilized people.

All of us have recently heard much about a "return to basics." Congress keen interest in the subject is reflected in the Elemen-

tary and Secondary School Education Act Amendments of 1978, which authorized a new national program to help States and local school districts to improve instruction so that all children are able to master the basic skills of reading, mathematics, and effective communication, both written and oral. This important and understandable legislative concern, which for the first time has focused Federal efforts exclusively on basic skills achievement, I believe deserves the encouragement and enthusiastic support of the American people.

However, a return to basics is not simply, in my belief, a return to basic skills. It should be seen also as a return to basic structures and a sense of structure in education. It is a return to a basic sense of how an educational process is put together and what that process means.

A central concern of the educational process, we all know, is the making of choices. One way a school explains the making of choices is through its curriculum. Teachers make the act of choosing a visible part of their teaching, whatever they are teaching. In a larger sense, however, each good teacher's activity is enhanced by and reflected in the curriculum. Any curriculum is the larger pattern that sets purpose and specifically and explicitly makes students choose something and then follow through.

A curriculum is not made the way the real world is; it is not seemingly random and open ended. If it is, it is not a curriculum. To the ancients, a curriculum meant a racecourse, a laid out and defined path, not an open field without boundaries because without boundaries, there are no expectations, and without expectations, there is no real possibility of satisfaction for the runner. There has to be a definition or there is no sense of achievement.

If it is a contradiction in terms to talk about an open curriculum, it is doubtless tautological to speak of a structured curriculum, for curriculum means structure. It means, I think, a containment of energy so as to direct it, a capacity to restrain force so that its release is significant and purposeful.

So, I will assume curriculum means planned structure and say that I believe in a curriculum with clear, rigorous and reasonable expectations set by the faculty. It could be anybody's curriculum.

Last spring, the Yale College faculty voted to require such a structure for all undergraduates beginning with next year's freshmen. It is a structure that requires the student to choose by the end of his sophomore year two terms (or a year's course) in each of four areas: English and Foreign Languages; the (other) Humanities; the Social Sciences; and the Natural Sciences.

I believe in this kind of curriculum not because I am wary of flexibility, or because I think we must dictate course content to all our students, or because we think we can create courses that pretend to encapsulate all knowledge.

I believe in a structured liberal arts course of study because I think that a curriculm's basic lesson is communicated by the fact of having students choose among diversity, of having them confront areas of intellectual and humane inquiry, and choose among the possibilities and begin to live with the consequences of their choices. A curriculum of that kind, I think, stretches the mind and, I hope, the spirit, through learning to plan and to pursue according

to realities available. Such a curriculum requires that the student share in common not only certain skills and kinds of information but much more importantly also share, with others, the very act of choosing according to certain assumptions. Only when a curriculum teaches through its nature, in addition to its courses, is the curriclum supplementing the classroom and leading students to learning that would not otherwise be engaged in common. A curriculum finally reflects that patterned pluralism of value, method and perception that the educated mind must first engage in order to sharpen judgment and then pursue a chosen goal.

Within any curriculum, however conceived, must lie those subjects that bear the values of the whole culture and which have historically been seen as at the center of a liberal education. I mean the humanities, and by the humanities I also mean, in a special but specific way, the arts. By the humanities, I refer to those areas of human and humane inquiry that are language, or better, word centered. I conceive, therefore, of the basic humanistic activity as revolving around the interpretation, that is, the clarification and criticism, of a text. My perspective is part of an old, relatively unphilosophical, fundamentally philological tradition. It sees language as the bearer of tradition and believes that words give first principles and last things.

"Humane studies are connected to each other," said a humanist scholar at the end of the fourteenth century. He was talking about grammar in the divine scheme of things and he said "(R)eligious studies are also bound each to each; it is impossible to acquire a complete knowledge of the one science without a knowledge of the other." If the humanistic perspective sees how things secular and sacred are connected among themselves, it sees that connection through the ligatures of language.

The arts—music, theater, painting, sculpture, architecture, film—each with its own, if you will, sign system or language and its own texts, are also very much a part of my view of language and the humanities. Here the values we think of as humanistic—that is, the value of human life, the need to treat others with decent rationality, the urge we all feel to find order and shape in inner or outer chaos and finally a sense of a transcendent moral world that gives purpose to what we do here below—are given, I believe, by a private act of the imagination, public expression.

Regardless of what langage they use or how the text, whether it is a poem or historical document or musical score, is construed if the humanities and the arts are those areas of any curriculum where the culture's imagination is most broadly engaged and through which the individual imagination is most immediately fostered. Obviously, science and scientific inquiry tap the imagination as directly as anything else but only through language is the general stream of culture finally approached and the ethical and moral values of the past transmitted. It is in language that we find ourselves; through language of whatever kind that we fully shape ourselves; and by language that some kind of broad public availability reaches out to those around us and those to come.

I believe in choosing how we regard language, we choose how we regard ourselves, and no choice we make is more crucial than how we choose to express ourselves. The value of all life is in language.

We perpetuate ourselves as more than bodies by what we make with our minds. And in that making, through language and through the languages of the arts, we define what we choose to become and thus I think all of us as humans perpetuate ourselves and choose what to leave behind.

A curriculum must have at its core the teaching of the humanistic disciplines and here broadly define as centered upon versions of the word. That means any education wishing to do more than simply accumulate and transmit information must pay attention to the value-laden languages within it—languages in foreign tongues, in literature, in history, in philosophy, in religious studies and in the arts that are made by hand and eye and body. That means the need to teach students to respect language and its power; to respect its capacity to shape themselves and their fellows, which is an essential part of an education for citizenship. It means clarity, grace and logic in written and oral expression is at the heart of the matter because without a decent regard for what language can do, and a love for its variety and some awe before its brooding reach, without that, in some deep and authentic way, our humanity will not be summoned and shaped and made civil.

This may sound like an overly elaborate way of asking for a reestablishment of structure in a course of study, with foreign languages and the other humanities strongly emphasized, and skill in writing English encouraged and rewarded. It may also sound as if nothing else is valuable or to the point.

But I have not said, nor do I mean, such a thing. The human imagination is not confined to any single enterprise, and language which is the medium for the imagination could be extended to the languages of quantification, the language of mathematics, the language of computers. But my purpose is not to extend the implications of language. My purpose is to offer my view of the essential nature, and importance, of language as I have defined it in the humanities and the arts. And I do that because all of us have a vital stake in an education that while aesthetically conceived, has an ethical base. Ethical in the sense that we want our students to know what informed and rational choice is, and what consequences of choice can mean. Ethical in the sense that we want our students to know how we all depend for our hope of a civilized existence on someone else's shared sense of our concerns for a decent life.

My theme is a simple one: That a curriculum embody the regard for language, read, written, or spoken, in order to reassert the civic, not technical, purpose of an education. Only if a curriculum sustains a shared core of values held by educated people through language, I believe, can a free and mutually supportive people continue to flourish.

[The following was received for the record:]

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From: Yale Alumni Magazine, January, 1976,
Vol. XXXIX, no. 4, Pages 17-19

Sentimentality

The 'corrosive acid' of Gibran, Vonnegut, Abbie Hoffman and other purveyors of mush has eroded the capacity of the young to think and therefore to write. 'Millions of school children have been lied to.'

by A. Bartlett Giamatti

Today's college students—the former grammar and high school students of the late 1960's and early '70's—have lost touch with the language. These were the children nobody remembered when The Movement was moving, when the rest of us were being liberated. These were the genuine young.

They are the products of the anti-structures of that time. They have come and are coming out of the "open classroom," vertical grouping, modular buildings with 50 pupils to a room. They have come out of the "new math" and its concepts, its lego's and blocks and set theory, not knowing how to multiply. They have come out of "individualized instruction" and "elective systems," not knowing how to listen to anyone else, not knowing how to take a direction.

They have come out of the sentimental '60's, where "repressive" and "arbitrary" grades were done away with, not able to take the pressure of grading. They have come out of a primary and secondary world where "personal development" was said to be worth more than achievement, where "creativity" was the highest goal and was often completely divorced from one of its essential components: discipline. And they are arriving in college often completely at a loss about how to cope with their work, with their time, with themselves.

But most of all, these present college students, and those now in junior high and high school, cannot handle the English language, particularly as it is written.

That this is so is no secret. The New York Times recently reported that, in the 10 years since 1964, the verbal and math scores on the scholastic achievement tests (SAT's) have been steadily declining, and that the average test scores for 1975 high school graduates declined by 10 points on the verbal portion and by 8 points on the math portion since 1974. This was the largest single drop in the past 12 years.

This decline tells us something real and terrifying about the state of the English language, just as a recent article on course enrollments in foreign languages—in "The Chronicle of Higher Education"—tells us something about literacy and the state of foreign languages. The Modern Language Association reports a drop of 6.2 percent in undergraduate enrollments in foreign languages from 1972 to 1974, with sharpest declines of 14 percent in German, 13.4 percent in French, 11.8 percent in Russian, and slighter declines in Italian and Spanish. This, the article said, reflects a trend that has been apparent since the late 1960's.

Obviously the inclination to immerse oneself in any language is on the wane, and the ability to use language is withering rapidly. Ask anyone who reads student writing — or hires recent graduates. Last fall the Yale English Department voted to reinstate English 10, a composition course, because so many Yale students cannot handle English—cannot make a sentence or a paragraph, cannot organize a paper, cannot follow through—well enough to do college work.

Yale is not unique. To take a university different in every respect except quality, Berkeley has just created the Bay Area Writing Project, bringing together college, junior college and high school teachers in the San Francisco area to work on each other to work on student writing. Why? Because where seven years ago only about 25 percent of Berkeley students had to take "Subject A," Berkeley's required basic composition course for entering freshmen, now the number is around 50 percent. Berkeley saw the quality of writing declining sharply and decided to invest its energies in the students' earlier years by going back into the high schools. From the Free Speech Movement to the Bay Area Writing Project in just 10 years.

Never mind the statistics. Ask the students. They will tell you how badly they need help with their language. Last year at Yale, 185 students applied for 12 places in one small college seminar on expository writing—nothing fancy, just a course on how to write. This is typical of the students' desperate wish to be taught how to handle the fundamental medium in which we live.

What has happened? I believe that of all the institutions attacked in the past dozen years—governmental, legal and

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"The Free Speech Movement was intended not only to free speech from middle-class constraints but to free us from the shackles of syntax, the racism of grammar, the elitism of style."

educational—the one that suffered most was the institution of language itself, that massive, living system of signs which on the one hand limits us and, on the other hand, allows us to decide who we are. This institution—language—was perceived as being repressive. It was thought to be the agent of all other repressive codes—legal, political and cultural. Language was the barrier that blocked—blocked access to pure feeling, blocked true communal experience of the kind that flowered at Woodstock, blocked the restoration of Eden.

Language was what was circumvented by drugs and music—those agents of higher states whose main virtue was that they were not verbal but visual or aural, the pure association of pure shape or sound unencumbered by words—which is to say by distinctions, which is to say by meaning. Language dissociated us from primitive impulses. It polluted us with ambiguity; it was not pure. Language impeded freedom.

The first shot in the revolution in 1964 was the Free Speech Movement. It was intended not only to free speech from middle-class constraints about uttering obscenities, for instance. It was also intended to free us from the shackles of syntax, the racism of grammar, the elitism of style. All those corrupt and corrupting elements in American society, those signs that we had fallen from paradise, could be located in an aspect of language. The Free Speech Movement was where we first began to hear language mediated through the bullhorn into the formulaic chant of a crowd.

This reductiveness would soon be extended to all kinds of systems that asserted differentness or pluralism as essential to their workings. But language was where it was first applied. The slogan—like the picket sign, the bumper sticker, the single name by which so many people in The Movement went (surnames being invidious)—all were part of an effort to compress language to a single unambiguous medium of exchange, a coin of the realm that could not be counterfeited or abused. Because what was being sought was not the protean leap of language, but unity of feeling—complete integration of desire and fulfillment.

And here is where language was more of an enemy than anything else. For while language may be a medium for sentimentality, it will not finally yield to it. Try as you can, you can neither wholly avoid words nor wholly make them mean only what you feel. Words resist. But Abbie Hoffman says it better than I can. I quote from Hoffman's speech on the warm evening of May 1, 1970, in the courtyard of Ezra Stiles College at Yale, on the occasion of one of the last great campus gatherings of The Movement:

"Don't listen to people who say we got to be serious, responsible. Everybody's responsible and serious but us. We gotta redefine the——language. Work—W-O-R-K—is a dirty four-letter word. . . . We need a society in which work and play are not separate. We gotta destroy the Protestant ethic as well as capitalism, racism, imperialism—that's gotta go too. We want a society in which dancin' in the streets isn't separate from cuttin' sugar cane. . . . We have picked the Yale lock."

Fascinating. Because the Protestant ethic, capitalism, racism and imperialism are almost forgotten, almost mere afterthoughts, as Hoffman proclaimed what he really wants: a garden world where nothing is separate, work and play, cutting cane and dancing, where the togetherness will come by "redefining the language." If only he could redefine the language as easily as he could manipulate a crowd. But language won't change its essential shape for anyone. If you engage it, you must honor its deep tides. The most that Abbie Hoffman can do is make it do tricks, and the pun at the end is his trick.

Abbie Hoffman's attitude to language was fundamentally sentimental—language was a medium for expressing his feelings. It wasn't really a rhetorical instrument, to be used to persuade others, or a weapon, used to flay others. It was like everything else to him and to those like him—good as long as it made you feel good.

This sentimentality, corrosive as acid, was true of all those for whom books became talismans and fetishes, helpful for inducing states and sensations. This is how the novels of Herman Hesse, awash in sentiment, were used, and the novels of Kurt Vonnegut, Jr. Vonnegut was a culture hero because he seemed to be grinning through exquisite pain, the result of his extraordinary moral sensitivity. As Robert Alter has suggested, the young loved his sense of resignation and the fact that his America was glistening with corruption and guilt and failure. They also loved him because his zany cartoons masqueraded as tragic complexities and therefore massaged their prejudices without requiring them

to think. This was the perfect writer for people who felt that words were crowding them, impeding them: people for whom Zen, the occult, Indians, organic gardening, Transcendental Meditation, the "I Ching"—the whole frozen dinner of the new primitivism—were superior to words.

The only texts to be trusted were Eastern ones that might lead to trance or offered no resistance to it. This accounts for the prodigious sales of that poisonous sweetmeat, "The Prophet," by Kahlil Gibran. For, like Rod McKuen, Gibran continued to satisfy the sentimental longings for absorption of those for whom real politics or drugs were either too dangerous or too distant.

Throughout the 1960's the sentimental mode implied a fundamental attitude to language. Language at best was good only for getting past language. The fact that language has its own laws and imperatives, its own polity, was precisely why it was the most cunning, the most resourceful, the last enemy. And although Abbie Hoffman didn't say so, he might have said "Shut it down to open it up." If language is a city, let it fall. Let the garden of green feeling grow—sweet like the sugar cane, wordless like the dance.

This essential sentimentality, this deep distrust of the restrictions of language, this desire to level its distinguishing features, is at the heart of why young people today can't write, can't shape themselves through words. And it is why so many of the cultural edifices that we raise through words are equally in disrepair.

It is this sentimental attitude, now running throughout our system, that led the editor of "English Today," the organ of the National Council of Teachers of English, to write an article last April deriding the call from colleges for more "fundamentals" at the high school level. "The English teaching profession—for the most part—has progressed," he wrote, "well beyond thinking of writing instruction solely or principally in terms of basic skills instruction."

This is the very accent of the attitude I am describing. "Skills" is a code word for discipline, for work, for language in its particularity. The editor, a professor at Michigan State University, assures his high school clientele that that is all behind them. He would rather, judging by the titles of two suggestions for courses in his journal—"Creative Writing Without Words" and "A Visual Approach to Writing"—have students create sounds on a tape recorder, or "free-associate" from pictures, because words are dense and recalcitrant, stone that is hard to shape into statues. He would rather have students avoid meaning and grope for feeling. He would urge them not to face the reality of language, though, of course, the consequence is that they will not face or find the reality of themselves.

For that is what is at stake. That is what the neo-primitivism and sentimentality really mean—that all complexity can be avoided in the name of communality and desire. And I claim that this attitude persists because of what we are doing to language.

"To deny language is finally to deny history, and that is what frightens me most about young people who can't write, particularly those who don't know it or don't care."

I believe that all of us are what we say we are—that as individuals and as a people we define through language what we have, and what we will be, and that a group of people who cannot clearly and precisely speak and write will never be a genuine society. We shape ourselves and our institutions, and we and our institutions are shaped, through those individual acts of negotiation between ourselves and our language. Without a respect for its awesome power we can never find out who we are, and thus never have to leave the child's garden of feeling and enter the city—that is, become citizens.

To deny language is finally to deny history, and that is what frightens me most about young people who can't write, particularly those who don't know it or don't care. They have been duped. By thinking that language can be denied, in order to achieve full access to feeling, they have of course become blocked and stunted and frustrated—and at the most important level. It is a sad irony. High school and college students have been encouraged to believe that language does not require work—that if they wait they will suddenly blossom and flower in verbal mastery; that if they transcribe what they feel about anything it will somehow turn into what they think.

Clearly, to have been told all these things—and millions of school children were and are told these things—is to have been lied to. It is also to have been robbed of the only thing that everyone does share, the only thing that connects us each to each. Language is the medium in which the race lives, it is what we have brought from our past, and it is what has brought us from the past—our link with who we were and who we want to be.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Dr. Giamatti. Your prepared statement is absolutely magnificent and I can assure you it will live again because I think it will be used as the basis of my commencement speeches in Missouri starting about a month from now.

Dr. GIAMATTI. Wonderful.

Senator EAGLETON. And I am so proud of myself, I am going to sound so terribly erudite. It was very, very good.

We recently read an article telling of activities undertaken at Miami University in Ohio to improve writing competency among its students.

For instance, all departments at Miami in Ohio have been asked to stress the importance of writing, a writing clinic has been established, the class size in English composition sections has been reduced for more frequent contact between teacher and pupil.

Has Yale University ever considered the institution of similar activities, or has Yale University ever perceived a need to pursue such activities?

Dr. GIAMATTI. The answer to your second question, sir: Certainly, we have perceived it is a need, it is a critical need no less at Yale than anywhere else.

A grant from a private foundation has allowed us to begin at Yale this year a clinic of writing as is done at Miami and elsewhere.

There are three components any way one approaches this problem.

I think practically all of us understand that by the time college students arrive, at 17, 18, or 19, their attitude toward language and many of their basic skills are already formed and, therefore, colleges are not able to refashion all of which has been malformed earlier.

The ways that we have decided to combat that are three.

As at Miami, we designate certain courses across the curriculum as being what we call writing intensive. That is, regardless of the subject matter, we construe the activity of writing to be a critical part of the course, making sure there is a constant feedback as to the level of writing, through student/teacher conferences, correcting and so on. This has to be engaged in in order to have people learn what they are doing wrong.

The second thing is to set up what at Miami they call clinics and we call editors' programs, which are people to whom students can go, not to write a paper but for help with the organization.

In my experience as a teacher, particularly when working with freshmen, it is not so much at the level of syntax and grammar that the American college student has failed, but rather at the level of the capacity to organize logical transitions, paragraph to paragraph, with a sense that the reader needs to be persuaded, taken through and argued in a logical fashion.

You spend many hours making outlines on the board, even outlines of how to make an outline. It was not a single sentence but carrying the argument paragraph by paragraph. That, on the assumption that the sacramental quality would be so evident that everybody would be persuaded to read on.

The third effort is to train graduate students to be effective teachers of writing in the future, to do this at a time when the academic market in the areas of humanities is closing down, knowing that by the mideighties there will be zero need for Ph.D.'s because the number of students will have declined. It is to train graduate students to also have some capacity to teach composition, to understand it is a valuable enterprise, not to think it is beneath them, and to write clearly enough themselves.

So, I think in the university setting there are three areas.

The designation within the curriculum is important and the obligation is not only of a single department but of the whole college.

The second is to provide editors or clinics.

And the third is to train graduate students to see this as a valuable and necessary skill they must have as teachers.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me pursue that outline business.

You are a young man. Based on either your own knowledge as a university professor or based on hearsay that you have acquired from more senior professors, is the disability of today's college-bound graduate, insofar as his or her capacity to outline the thoughts sequentially, is that more disabled than it was for college-bound students 20 years ago?

Dr. GIAMATTI. I believe it is, and not only from my own experience which, as you pointed out, is not that broad. I was a college student and I thought I was splendid, but I was not. It is also the experience from my senior colleagues.

My answer, which I tried to express in my statement, is that it is as much a result of attitude toward language, and a sense of valuing language, as it is anything else; and that the lack of a sense of the value and hard work and discipline that it takes to write well begins very early on.

If a student arrives at college having been trained to believe that language was simply a medium for communicating feeling and not a tool which engages the mind you begin to see an inability rationally to organize and logically to structure a paper. I happen to think that in a certain point in our recent history there clearly began to be a very different attitude toward language.

It seems to me one can begin to see a demonstrable decline in the capacity to organize clearly.

My own contention is that one could begin to trace the decline in test scores at about the same time one began to locate other things.

Senator EAGLETON. This committee is not looking for surprise. It is too simplistic to say: "That is where we went wrong. But for the evil things it would have been just wonderful."

With that in mind, do you ascribe any part of, should I call that decline and reverence for the English language or the printed word, do you ascribe any decline to the emergence of television as a dominant mode of public communication?

Dr. GIAMATTI. Personally, I am not one of those people who believe television has played a major detrimental role.

Senator EAGLETON. You are not one.

Dr. GIAMATTI. No, sir. I think television has been used as a babysitter and substitute for reading, but I happen to believe as

many children have been introduced to language and the meaning of words through television as have been drawn away.

There are certain programs, particularly on public television, that were widespread, like Sesame Street, which did a great deal, from my point of view, to give people a sense for words.

So, I am much less confident personally about asserting the role of television as the major force of this decline. I certainly recognize that, but I am not inclined to think it is the major culprit.

I think there have not only been a lot of young children introduced specifically to words, but I have seen this phenomenon, the way a powerful dramatization will cause people to go out and buy the book and read it.

I think it is a two-way street.

Senator EAGLETON. You mention public TV in your answer. Last night on PBS, there was Romeo and Juliet, one of a series of Shakespeare's plays, never shown on TV.

Curiously enough, the United States was not the instigator of this program series. These were acquired from Britain, as is a large part of that which is shown on public TV.

I don't know what the listening percent was, with the three major networks, but I think it would be a fair bet that certainly less than 5 percent of the TV audience watched Romeo and Juliet. I am just guessing.

You mention that sometimes they see something on TV and that induces them to go out to buy the book. It might be true of Roots, or what have you.

PBS may have some absolutely marvelous things on there, but the garbage that shows on prime time every night of the week on the three major networks is almost stupefying. That is a personal bias of mine.

Dr. CIAMATTI. We share a similar bias.

However, if people weren't watching, would they be curled up reading Dickens? I don't know that is the case at all.

I think it is possible to make an assertion that television stimulates the imagination and, indeed, with very young children, which is where I think it has to begin, that stimulation also has had an impact.

Senator EAGLETON. One of our witnesses at the St. Louis hearing was a Missouri commissioner of education, Dr. Arthur Mallory, who has had a rather interesting background.

He is about your age, maybe a couple of years older. He has served as a high school teacher, high school principal, superintendent of public schools in a Missouri school district and for about 5 years, president of Southwestern Missouri State University.

He has had experience throughout a wide range in education. He told us this. He said that the decline in basic skills—by the way, he doesn't think it is as bad as it is projected because we are testing a wider range of students today than we tested in 1950 or 1900—but part of the decline, he thinks, both at high school and later at the university level is too much diversity in selective courses and although he didn't think it was extreme in high school, he criticized colleges and universities for this huge catalog of courses permitting the student to pick a little of this and a little of that, that we had gotten away from some basics you referred to.

Dr. GIAMATTI. I couldn't agree more. I think it is true in both high school and college.

Senator EAGLETON. At Yale, are you narrowing the courses offered?

Dr. GIAMATTI. Yes. One of the things we have now is something that stopped about 1967, which is to say we have required courses.

The other thing is the sheer economics of the marketplace. There are going to be less people to teach and less people to teach them.

I think the introduction of the so-called flexible or open curriculum didn't give the student enough guidance; it allowed people to pursue what they liked, and didn't put them through any structure or give them the skill to handle a variety of things. They could stay with photography or whatever they wanted

I think if you take it back to the primary school level, I would agree with one of your earlier witnesses who asserted the methods of teaching, particularly the reading readiness idea which said, "Read when you feel like reading," had an enormous amount to do with undermining the child's sense that this was an ultimate pleasurable activity.

This is where I would locate the attitudinal point of view. A student must learn in his early training that writing and reading are connected, that you can't learn to write well until you read, and that reading and writing are pleasures, are activities that take a lot of work but give a lot of personal and other kinds of satisfaction.

Senator EAGLETON. You mentioned the word economics as part of this constriction of courses.

Do you have in your head the statistics of how many professors were granted tenure at Yale in the past year and how many were let go or not granted tenure?

Dr. GIAMATTI. I don't have those statistics in my head, no. I do know that there have been many, many fewer senior appointments, tenure appointments, than there had been before, and on the same note, there have been people leaving.

Young people, 28 to 35, have been leaving, going out of the market. Most of them are leaving the profession and going into other things. The real tragedy is that in 20 years, when the demographic curve begins to come back up and when the American higher education profession has declined, the university will not have been able economically to nourish a generation of young faculty people committed to teaching and able to bear the standards that the country needs. There is going to be such a brutal crunch for other economic reasons.

I have specific reference to the arts and humanities and to specific parts of the social sciences.

It is the general level of quality in terms of the teaching profession that I worry about as well as the specific level of skills which is a function of that quality.

Senator EAGLETON. Again, a digression: Your testimony causes me to think in related areas.

With this constriction in the marketplace, the demograhic curve and the statistics and projected estimates certainly bear that out, what should government do, if anything, or the universities themselves do voluntarily, to alter the source of supply of students?

Let me illustrate. The Federal Government has something to do with medical education in this country. Yesterday's debate on the floor of the Senate was on the matter of capitation grants and the Federal Government benignly and with decent motives is somehow trying to change medical school specialties and to get people in to the family practice of medicine and get doctors, somehow or other, in the area of need which is in rural America and in the inner-city situations.

By the use of money, we are trying to induce people into the family practice, in these underserved areas.

What should Yale University do, looking at population trends? You have some bright young people. If you want to get a Ph. D. in history or literature, do you say: "Fella, there ain't going to be no job for"—pardon my English—

We have tenured professors. There is no way you can break into this area. We are not going to make available to you the opportunity to get your Ph. D. in political science or English. We are going to shift you over to ecological engineering.

What role does the university play in sizing up the statistics and trying, therefore, to affect the supply and demand market?

Dr. GIAMATTI. What we are trying to do in New Haven is to maintain that critical mass of qualified faculty which must exist in a university or a college.

Let me take Amherst and Yale. There has to be a critical mass of young faculty. There has to be a critical mass at a certain level of graduate students.

Miami University of Ohio wants to shrink the class size in English. They are going to run into trouble. They are going to shrink the size of the class when they will be taking more students. They will have to find money to do that.

Where the Government can help is in making graduate funds available. Without graduate students, without a critical mass of graduate students, you don't have enough people to pass a profession on.

It seems to me that one of the things one is going to have to do, and we are trying to do it at Yale, is to reallocate resources. In order to be able to produce in the next 15 years enough people who will be able to meet market demand of high quality, and that means particularly in foreign languages and humanities, the market simply cannot be allowed to determine how many graduate students you take and how many young faculty you produce.

I think the area where we need help is not simply at the level of research money for faculty. It is at the level of maintaining the next generation, and that means the next generation of graduate students, so that the extraordinary liberal arts undergraduate student will choose to go into an academic profession because there will be enough support to make life worthwhile for years of graduate school, and because there will be institutions that feel those subjects are crucial to the national interest.

That takes a certain level of support and private institutions are not going to be able to do it. The extent to which the Federal Government wishes to engage in things at another level is always a problem for us in many respects and for reasons we all understand.

It seems to me one problem is the next generation of professional teachers. The irony, from my point of view, is that an institution

like Yale will be able continually superbly to train physicians, lawyers, business people, divines, nurses, but not the one segment of the professional population that we are set up to produce, and that is precisely those people who are the future academics. That means something dangerous is going to happen in the heart of any research institution or any liberal arts college.

I decided to ask the dean of Yale Law School to give me statistics, if he would, on the number of Ph. D.s, completed Ph. D.s, who have applied to Yale Law School between 1976 and 1978. 1976 is when they began keeping statistics.

He told me that in those 3 years 284 Ph. D.s had applied to Yale Law School. Those are 284 who have gone all the way through the Ph. D., have finished the doctorate, and are internally migrating, if not externally.

I understand the legal profession provides capacity to do research, to engage the mind.

Thirty-three of those 284 were accepted at Yale. That means 251 have gone some place else or, if you will, have left their profession. Of that 33, 25 are in the area of humanities, 10 from Yale graduate schools.

That means there has been an enormous amount of financial, emotional, intellectual investment in young people, none of whom entered their profession. They won't enter their profession because there is nothing in their profession to do. At 26, 27, 28, 29, they are going to make a major change.

I don't want to be misconstrued as saying I think this is a bad thing because someone goes to law school. There may well be an interesting new kind of teacher of law.

But the future teachers of the things we are talking about are starting to leave in droves. That is a very, very dangerous phenomenon.

Those are terrifying statistics. I have not investigated the extent to which this might be true in any of the other major law schools. That is not the issue.

The issue is the sense of hope, the sense of vocation, the sense of morale, the sense of faith in what that vocation promised which it is not going to be able to deliver. I think that is very sad and I think it is also very dangerous.

If I may say one other thing——

Senator EAGLETON. Yes.

Dr. GIAMATTI. You asked about a grant for physicians and nurses.

I think the President's Commission on Foreign Languages, regardless of the outcome of that Commission, has been a major source of boosting the morale of the thousands in high schools, colleges, and universities across the country who teach foreign languages. It is a boost for no other reason than that it demonstrates that at the top level of our society there is a concern with the studies of these things. That demonstration of a national concern is as critical to the sense of purpose and the sense of engagement as almost anything else.

We regard foreign language as an art, a humanity, for no other reason than that these are skills that are going to have to be

nourished in institutions, not outside of them, and, therefore, I go back to the level of graduate work.

Senator EAGLETON. As you know, a year or so ago, Congress passed a law against compulsory retirement at age 65.

Dr. GIAMATTI. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. As part of that statute, we gave a 5-year grace period to universities and colleges, saying that they could, during that 5-year grace period, require a professor to retire at age 65 and after that 5-year grace period they will not be able to so do.

Looking down the road 5 years and taking into account the statistics that you have already mentioned, what is going to happen then insofar as opening up the ranks for young professors of humanities, languages?

Dr. GIAMATTI. It will only make it absolutely impossible.

If I may say something, in the State of Connecticut, as of January 1, 1979, there was passed a law which prohibits requiring retirement because of age, at any age, in the private sector.

Yale University is looking at the situation right now. At this moment, we have gone beyond the exemption of the Federal law and are now in the situation, from the point of view of Yale, Wesleyan, Fairfield, the University of Bridgeport and other private institutions, where there is no retirement. This means, therefore, at this particular time, which is so critical for a young faculty, an added element has been introduced.

From my point of view, I believe it is inappropriate interference, not only in our capacity to determine how to move people along, but in making it even more difficult to satisfy those human and moral assumptions, as well as, of course, legal obligations and principles of affirmative action. Because, if one genuinely believes, as I do, that one brings into one's institution women, minority people, to enrich the whole place and the whole country, it is hard when we are enjoined from hiring young people. It threatens one's capacities in that critical area, as well as others, and it is a very, very difficult situation.

I was trying to get the law of Connecticut amended.

Senator EAGLETON. I do not think there is any doubt about what you just stated.

Dr. GIAMATTI. I would be happy as president of a national university to see retirement at age 70. It would keep people of excellence and wisdom with us. I think there have to be boundaries. Seventy would be a delight, from my point of view.

Senator EAGLETON. Quoting from the Wirtz report, and then I will ask a question.

The report states that 25 years ago only half of young America were staying in schools through the 12th grade. This fraction grew by 1964 to two-thirds and by 1970 to three-fourths.

The proportion going to college was about one-fourth in 1952, about one-third in 1964 and almost half by 1970, and I guess it has even increased—well, I assume it has increased a bit since 1970.

Take those as a statistical basis, assuming that many high school graduates are entering our colleges and universities with an inadequate base in the basic skills—I am not saying how many, a significant measure—assuming that Miami University of Ohio is right in trying to constrict classroom size in teaching of basic skills

at the college and university level, and assuming that this would be an area where we could prudently use some of the graduate students that you use in that, referring to the testimony, I am not advocating this but acting sort of as devil's advocate, should Congress consider yet another categorical Federal aid program geared to give assistance to colleges and universities in the hiring of graduate students to, in essence, teach on a remedial or quasi-remedial basis some of the basic skills at the college and university level that today's high school graduates do not have by the time they reach college and university?

Dr. GIAMATTI. I think the hope for support of graduate students that I expressed was not in order to support them to teach composition. My hope for their support would be in order to train them to be professors of French and history, and let us train them. I want to be able to train our graduate students and I will find the money to support within the institution the training of the research-oriented person to be a skillful teacher.

I don't think that is a level at which the Federal Government should be helping out. The Federal Government should recognize the critical need for embodying these values.

I would go back to an earlier point. The Federal Government can help sharpen and shape the teaching of basic skills where they begin to be critical, in grammar school and high school. There isn't enough money to help us train people coming in who can't do the basic skills. There isn't enough money to help those that need help.

We should not be trying to do the job that people who are better able were doing earlier. We should be allowed to continue to do a job we can do well.

To the extent we need to refurbish student skills, I construe that as an obligation of the institution. Therefore, it is my view that if one can sustain graduate level activities for a whole series of good reasons, we will then be able, with our own wit and will and resources, to add that extra measure of workshop tutoring and so forth that is crucial in making graduate students effective teachers of composition.

Yale can train graduate students to be first-rate teachers and scholars.

Senator EAGLETON. In your prepared statement you state the Yale policy of requiring all freshmen to adhere to a prescribed curriculum of English and foreign languages and other humanities.

What emphasis would you place on basic economic theory as an integral part of the curriculum?

Dr. GIAMATTI. The difference between Yale's required curriculum and what is called at another institution a core curriculum is that Yale does not require content. Yale requires context.

We require students to choose among the various sciences and pursue them according to a plan they work up themselves. We do not require them to take this course as opposed to that course.

Were I starting over again, I would take the economics courses I was not wise enough to take at the time.

But it seems to me more important for us to require that students plan through a pattern that is broadly based, that has a liberal arts spread. I don't mean the humanities. I see liberal arts education spreading from the humanities to physics; not requiring

them to take this course as opposed to that, but I think taking courses in an area.

I would hope a student who finds himself or herself more drawn to political science or anthropology would take that as opposed to economics, but that would be a choice for the student to make.

I would rather try to deal with the ethical impulse of the student to make choices, to think through consequences, by having the student take a specific context.

There has been a destruction of the notion of context. You can't ask the student at 18 to plan a pattern without giving a sense of boundary or definition to make a rational choice.

Otherwise, it is not rational; it is a lottery.

I would like to see foreign languages required in a curriculum, or the language of computation, whether computers in particular, or applied math. I would hope to see required the total spectrum of languages that a human being needs in order to effectively be a citizen.

We are not doing that in New Haven, the faculty may not want to go that far.

Senator EAGLETON. Since I have opened up economics, I am curious about this. Cisco was a neighbor of mine before he became president of American University. I asked him a similar question to that I am going to ask you.

What percentage of your waking hours as president of Yale do you spend romancing fat cats, alumni, or foundations, or the Federal Government, for the purpose of getting money for Yale?

Dr. GIAMATTI. I would say, sir, three-quarters at the very least, in one way or another.

Senator EAGLETON. That was the same answer. He said 75 to 80 percent, about a fourth of your time is spent in the pursuit of academic matters.

Dr. GIAMATTI. I would argue, however, that whether talking to a Yale alumnus or a foundation or sitting with the provost that no time is spent making judgments that aren't, finally, and academically based.

The amount of time for pure speculation about the future of America is probably not very large.

The extent to which one is making those judgments from the point of view of an academic core of values is as great as the time spent on economics.

You cannot talk to somebody who wants to support or not support you without some sense of what you support or defend.

Senator EAGLETON. Senator Pell, chairman of this committee, believes that high school seniors should be given the opportunity, in their senior year should be given the opportunity, to take competency tests in reading, writing and mathematics.

Some State legislatures, many by now, have mandated a compulsory test in math, basic skills, in the senior year as a condition of getting a high school diploma.

My view, for whatever it is worth, is that competency testing in the basic skills ought to be done from early on in the educational spectrum, in the second, third, fourth grades.

Have you given any thought to this academic thicket?

Dr. GIAMATTI. I, frankly, would agree with you, sir. It seems to me if one gives a student at 17 or 18 a competency test and discovers that he or she is incompetent, one has nailed the door shut. The issue really begins much earlier on.

The extent to which I believe a competency test is a true measure of competency is another question.

If one wants to monitor the progress, the capacity with which we want people to read, and to write with clarity and precision, you must be able to do that monitoring in some humane and non-oppressive fashion.

Early in teaching, you must monitor the process to see what programs have failed. Otherwise, you have people left with no sense of what you have told them.

I don't know that competency at the end does any good unless one has forced one's self to help make them competent at the beginning.

A competency test at age 18 tends to locate the blame on the student. I am not sure I want to blame or place guilt on people.

The capacity to relate to the world and to other human beings through language has to be nourished and explained. That begins very early.

Senator EAGLETON. Have you ever given any thought to competency testing of teachers?

Dr. GIAMATTI. At the college and university level, competency testing of teachers goes on in the kind of marketplace we have all the time. It is the view of the profession, of a discipline, of a department, of a field, which is continually assessing the written and published work.

Any teacher is assessed by competency in the classroom. It is an unmediated situation. You know very well whether it is getting through, whether that light is going on, whether that sense of excitement is out there.

The extent to which you can quantify success in teaching would be very difficult for me to comment on below the high school and college level because I don't have enough primary knowledge or a feel for those worlds. It would be fatuous for me to pretend to know the answer for primary or secondary school teachers.

I think everybody that teaches is engaged in an activity that is essentially similar, but I wouldn't pretend to know the dynamics of it below the college and university level.

Senator EAGLETON. I am told that English professors prefer to teach literature rather than writing skills. Do you subscribe to the fact that is a preference and is there anything which you would do about it?

Dr. GIAMATTI. Yes, it is a preference for the simple reason one's training through graduate school was always oriented to research and scholarship in the field of literature.

There is a disposition to follow your training and instinct. I don't believe most English professors don't want to teach writing skills. It is a very hard thing to do. It is like the difference between teaching a foreign language and teaching foreign literature. It takes work.

The reason why Miami University of Ohio says they can only do it by shrinking the size of a class is that if you have a class of 25

students, and each of them writes a paper each week, you have a lot of work. It is hard work. It involves not only reading but sitting down and talking.

I don't think there is an indisposition to do it. It is another skill and a difficult skill.

Some of the things that will bring more and more people that have only been teaching literature into this are (a) the fact that faculties are not going to have the funds and people are going to have to teach more of those things across the board and (b) regardless of what level you teach students, there are so many problems engaged in writing that you end up teaching composition whether the class is set up that way or not.

Senator EAGLETON. In a sense, you are not the best witness on this subject matter because Yale University accepts the cream of the cream in the SAT skills. I presume in the high 600's and 700's.

So maybe this question ought to be asked of a college and university professor that has a more varied academic mix.

As I understand, as president you see hundreds of incoming freshmen go through Yale. You also are a research university doing all kinds of research, not only medical research in your medical school but you have research in other pursuits.

What has Yale University done, or what should Yale University do, to impart some wisdom back to the elementary and secondary level telling principals and teachers early in the academic spectrum, "Here is something you should be doing so we have better products after your system."

Dr. GIAMATTI. That is a good question and I want to go back to one of your earlier questions.

We have done this in New Haven. The Yale—New Haven Teachers Institute takes teachers from the New Haven system and from the Yale faculty and has them, as colleagues, not missionaries, working together in the summers to develop a curricula in English, math, history, art history, in order that within a 3-year period every high school student in the city of New Haven will have gone through the curriculums in critical areas that have been developed by high school and college teachers working together.

That is where we can work in a joint effort with the high schools, trying to establish curriculums and expectations that will benefit all the students.

That kind of program can be done. Everybody somewhere has a school board, a school system. It seems to me it is a very, very important thing to have high school and, indeed, primary schoolteachers working with college teachers in an atmosphere that tries to develop curricular shape in a substantive way. What we need is not some trickle-down effect, but some sense of coming up from beneath, of a common sense of purpose for a common goal so teachers talk to one another and work together.

We have this program with the city of New Haven and I am going to make every effort I can to raise money for it, whether from a national endowment or elsewhere. It is not a public relations gesture. It is an effort to bring the school system in harmony through their teachers.

Senator EAGLETON. How long has Yale had this relationship with the public schools?

Dr. GIAMATTI. With the history curriculums, perhaps 10 or 12 years; with other curriculums, for a year or so, and I would like to see it expanded.

Senator EAGLETON. Have you developed, the university and public schools, any kind of skill testing or competency program?

Dr. GIAMATTI. Not to my knowledge, no. That is to say I don't think we have come to the point where the New Haven school system has such a desire.

From our own point of view, we do that for all freshmen. We place them in math and other kinds of things.

At Yale, we have 10,800 applicants for something like 1,300 positions. It is a very, very difficult problem to assess according to some norm that everybody more or less agrees to at the level of writing. You want to give everybody a fair shake. It is a bureaucratic and cumbersome problem.

There are writing samples in every applicant's folder and those are read with great care.

I would like to think what happened once upon a time could happen again and that there will be explicitly a piece of writing that can give some indication.

Writing not only shows the level of skill, it gives a sense of a person's thought processes. If they write clearly, they think clearly.

It would be nice to make an assessment which is a kind of a competency assessment.

Senator EAGLETON. You gave us an excellent article as a supplement to your testimony.

In that article, it is stated that 185 students at Yale applied for 12 places in a seminar on basic writing skills.

I raise this point because the report to be discussed with Mr. Wirtz attributes a portion of SAT decline to lack of motivation.

So, based on responses to a student questionnaire administered in conjunction with SAT about a margin of 8 to 1 students indicated they would not want to receive help in reading, math, and writing outside regular classrooms.

How do you square your 185 applicants for these 12 spots in a seminar on basic writing with what Mr. Wirtz is going to testify to in that questionnaire I just quoted?

Dr. GIAMATTI. With Secretary Wirtz's data, my sense of the critical problem being an attitude toward language would account for the statistics.

People not brought up to think of language as important, powerful, beautiful, or difficult and, therefore, interesting to handle are not going to want particularly to think that it is worth having help with.

The Yale statistics which can frankly be duplicated for a whole series of other places, as well as Yale, may well have something to do with the fact that Yale students are highly motivated, competitive, and, we think, very able.

They know very well that the ability to write well is going to be critical for them. It is going to be critical for them to do anything they do with their lives.

They are hopeful and anxious to get as much help as possible

Without intruding on the next witness' perspective, my hope is we could agree with his statistics. Where an attitude toward language disintegrates, motivation disintegrates.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Giamatti, thank you very much for you time and interest and attention. You have been a very thoughtful and provocative witness and we are very grateful to you.

Dr. GIAMATTI. Thank you, sir. It has been a great pleasure.

Senator EAGLETON. As I stated in my opening statement, our second witness is Mr. Willard Wirtz, who served as Secretary of Labor for the Kennedy and Johnson Administrations and he chaired a so-called blue-ribbon advisory panel on scholastic aptitude test score decline which we call the Wirtz Report, and we welcome Mr. Wirtz.

You may proceed.

STATEMENT OF WILLARD WIRTZ, CHAIRMAN, ADVISORY PANEL ON THE SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE TEST SCORE DECLINE

Mr. WIRTZ. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

The preceding witness mentioned two biographical facts: that he was himself a college student 20 years ago, and that this is the first time he has ever appeared before a congressional committee.

I was a college student 50 years ago. I suppose this is something like the 200th time I have appeared before a congressional committee and my sustaining and romantic hope is that I can be half as much help to the committee as Dr. Giamatti has been.

I suppose my answers would be a little different from his with respect to your questions about television and about electives; and because yesterday was my 67th birthday my answer might also be different with respect to compulsory retirement at 65.

But there emerges a clearly consistent theme for this morning's testimony: that the most important words in title II are "effective communication, both written and oral," and that the most valuable emphasis that can be brought to bear on the administration of this legislation will relate to such communication.

It has seemed to me, in trying to think through this testimony, most possibly worthwhile to make here three sets of observations which represent a personal interpretation of the experience on the Panel on the SAT Score Decline and which seem to bear on your particular interest in this matter of basic skills problems or achievement.

First, the decline in college entrance examination score averages between 1973 and 1977 are apparently identifiable in the largest single part with the direct and indirect effects of the increasing school retention rate.

The decline was substantially larger on the verbal, that is, the reading section, than on the arithmetic section of these tests.

Writing and oral communication skills are not measured on these tests.

The decline in averages on tests given at the 11th and 12th grade levels have been larger than the decline in comparable tests given students at the lower grade levels. The decline is larger at 12 than at 11. It is next larger at 10, and so on and so forth down to about

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grades 4 or 5, at which point there has been no decline in the averages.

To talk about one decline is to get the wrong answer. There were two declines. One took place between 1963 and 1970 or 1971. That decline was traceable almost entirely to the change in the composition of the test-taking group involving the inclusion of larger percentages of those who, for one reason or another, achieve lower academic grade averages.

The second decline, from 1973 to 1977 appears to have been across the board and to have involved an apparent change in developed skill capacity of the traditionally high scorers as well as the low scorers.

The decline has apparently flattened out in the last couple of years. That is nothing from which anybody could take satisfaction. Flattening out after a decline of these proportions must be less than satisfactory to anybody.

Second, close study of testing data and experience lead to intensified concern about the misuse of testing procedures and about the distinct danger that this misuse will diminish rather than increase the American basic skills.

The instruments are carefully and well designed for the purposes to which they are intended to be put, but they are being put by the American public to purposes for which they were not intended.

There is a movement today towards standardization of tests for what are primarily institutional or system accounting purposes. This appears to be at the expense of developing the more versatile testing procedures that could contribute greatly to the efficiency of teaching and to the effectiveness of learning.

I suggest as a footnote that we may come up with a different kind of thinking about this whole thing if every time we start to say "education," we substitute the word "learning" and see whether it brings us to the same conclusion.

These tests are being used as measures of effectiveness of schools without regard to the fact that a very large percentage of the learning process is taking place outside the schools, in the home and in the community at large. They are diverting our attention from the necessity of emphasizing the pluralism that is a requisite of the effective learning process.

You have asked about this minimal competency testing taking place in the various States. In my judgment, it is an obsession which may do infinite damage. I think it is contributing dangerously to the mediocrity to American education and will hurt education badly unless as much emphasis is placed on testing for excellence as testing for minimal competency.

The future of testing, I think, lies in the development of longitudinal tests through which we follow individuals or cohorts of individuals on through.

Third, the nonmeasurement in these tests of what title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act refers to as effective communication, both written and oral, and the exclusive reliance in these tests on objective-type answers both reflects and contributes to a disregard what is perhaps the most critical skill of all, at least as far as learning concerned. I mean writing.

There is no purpose in any further development of this point because I am referring to what Dr. Giamatti has already stressed.

It bothers me that section C of title II provides special programs in reading and math but nothing in the area of effective communication, both written and oral.

With respect, Mr. Chairman, to your opening inquiry about what assistance Federal Government can most effectively provide to local education in meeting these basic problems, I feel the same inadequacy Dr. Giamatti has expressed. That is a hard one to answer. Part of the reason it is difficult is because the question prompts thinking in terms of financial support. Yet I suspect that what is most needed is moral and political leadership that would emphasize, in my judgment, three things.

Getting off the negative and on to the affirmative, as far as this whole matter of education is concerned. Duncan Williams mentioned in his book The Trousered Age, "The cult of unpleasure." I am tired of it. So much of this talk about education seems to suggest an almost masochistic satisfaction in identifying the failures at the expense of looking at some of the affirmative possibilities.

Second, and I only echo the testimony of the preceding witness, emphasis should be put on identifying the basics in terms not of yesterday's minimal necessities, but of today's situation and of the future opportunities for excellence.

Finally, it seems to me leadership should be directed toward avoiding the distraction of narrow issues, toward keeping our focus very clear on the three questions T. S. Eliot asks:

"Where is the learning we have lost in information? Where is the understanding we have lost in knowledge? Where is the life we have lost in living?"

Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Your testimony, Mr. Wirtz, is right on the mark. It is excellent.

It is doubly good today. I not only have a commencement speech from Dr. Giamatti but I got the concluding quote from T. S. Eliot. I am in great shape for this academic season.

As any politician, I will start at the end and go backwards.

You mentioned in your concluding remarks, you commented on the fact that writing was left out of a subsection in title II and there are probably some interesting reasons why this was left out.

You are right, one of the interesting reasons—and there are others—is that it is terribly difficult, maybe it is impossible, for the use of a computer and statistical means to evaluate a written composition. We haven't got an IBM computer that you can put a written composition in and that computer will grade it.

On reading skills and scores on reading speed and comprehension, we do have test mechanisms that can put that into numbers and figures and percentages; certainly on math skills.

Again, we can computerize or automate the evaluation of those but something subjective takes so much time.

For instance, Dr. Giamatti says they got 10,000-some odd applications for 1,500 or 1,800 openings in the Yale freshman class.

Who is going to read and critique some 10,000 essays?

Are there other interesting reasons we sort of denigrate the writing skills in our approach, to the enhancement to the total basic skills picture?

Mr. WIRTZ. I think it is impossible to teach writing as it should be taught to the youth of America so long as we are talking about the present teaching force working an 8-hour day.

It simply takes a lot of time to correct a written examination or to go over the written essay and as much as I can push this point, it does reduce to the economics of whether we can expect teachers to take this much time for it.

I think there are only two sets of answers.

One is to enlarge the teaching staff substantially.

The other, which intrigues me, is to explore the possibility of drawing on, in this connection, the capacity and interests that are available in every community to help out as far as the teaching process is concerned.

Perhaps it is romantic but it is nevertheless an interesting conjecture about what would happen if the school tried to enlist parent help in connection with this matter of writing.

You can do that in a variety of ways. It might be an adjunct group of one kind or another.

We might consider a program designed to increase writing that would include three parts.

First, the arrangement of a single paragraph of written homework every day from about the 5th grade on in every course—with the paragraph to be reviewed the evening before by a parent, if one is available, and then looked at by a teacher and then turned back to the student.

Proposition No. 2, would be that we establish it as a norm that no more than half of any test is to be on an objective answer basis.

Kids learn what they think we are going to be using. They are going to be spending 10 or 12 years of their lives deciding whether to put an X in one box or in another. Why should they learn how to write?

These objective answer tests are killing our interest in writing.

The third proposition is that it should be made standard employment practice that every employee for every kind of a job would be required to sit down on the spot and write just one paragraph; or, if it is a job of real importance, four lines of poetry.

We could, if we were serious, start bringing the community interest to bear on writing things which I think would probably be of great help.

Whenever I say writing, I am, like Dr. Giamatti, using that as shorthand to include what the Act says, "communication, both written and oral."

Senator EAGLETON. In your testimony and also buttressed in the Wirtz Commission Report——

Mr. WIRTZ. The report does reflect in the extraordinary degree participation by the entire panel.

Senator EAGLETON. The point was very interesting and baffling statistics that first look at the period 1963 to 1976 as a whole, and we break that down into two periods of decline.

In your opening testimony, you looked at it as a whole, you said the decline was more marked at grade 12 and going backward and no decline at all up to the 4th and below level.

Why do you think that is?

Mr. WIRTZ. It is to some extent a function of the increased school retention rates.

At the fourth grade level, the test population is about the same it used to be; everybody has always stayed in school through the lower grades.

When you get to 11 or 12, you have the phenomenon of people who used to be dropping out now staying and taking the test. So, that would be part of the answer.

I suspect television might help some at the first three or four grades. I think it has hurt after that.

I think, too, we made some bad compromises in accommodating education to the effects of the users and retention rate. There is pretty good evidence that the text books at the high school level have been lowered one or two years in their difficulty level. We made concessions with respect to discipline, absenteeism, and other related matters.

Senator EAGLETON. Has there been a conscious decision by the American textbook publishing machine; that is what it is, a textbook publishing enterprise, have they made a conscious decision, in your opinion, to lower the grade level of textbooks? And, if so, why?

Mr. WIRTZ. In answer to your first question, they have done that. Any writer of textbooks has the experience of their drafts being sent back for simplification.

Some of these changes may be good, but to answer the question as to whether there was a conscious decision to simplify, I think the answer is unequivocally yes.

Your second question is about why. I guess to sell more books.

Senator EAGLETON. Did your study commission, your 21-member commission, make any attempt to validate the quality of teaching competence at the elementary and secondary levels?

Mr. WIRTZ. Yes, we did.

Senator EAGLETON. What did you find?

Mr. WIRTZ. We found that by every measure you can reduce to statistics there is no basis for suggesting a lowering of quality level. The training of teachers is more exclusive than it used to be, and so of the training of administrators. So, there would be no statistically identifiable base for suggesting a decline in level of teaching competence.

You can surely find particular situations in which the credentialing of teachers has been relaxed, or was. It was characteristic of the period of 1965 through 1970, when we were looking desperately for teachers because the kids were coming in in such large numbers.

I don't believe that is the situation today, particularly with the increasing competition for teaching jobs.

Senator EAGLETON. Let us get into competency testing and what you referred to as a misuse of testing procedures and I think some of those comments are valuable and some of it is valid, but I am a devil's advocate with you for a moment on that subject matter.

What is wrong with this statement? Well, my son is going to graduate from high school in May. Why should I not know as a parent what his skills are in reading and math and not only what his skills are but how they relate to say other members of his high school class? Unless I know how they relate to other students nationwide, what is un-American about having a test in the senior year? It tells me how well Terry Eagleton can read and compute.

Mr. WIRTZ. You said you were carrying the case for the devil and I concede that point to your client.

Senator EAGLETON. There is nothing wrong with that.

Mr. WIRTZ. Nothing at all.

Senator EAGLETON. Is there anything wrong with making it compulsory on a State-by-State basis?

Mr. WIRTZ. If I disagreed with the principle of accountability, I would still accept it as given so far as public attitudes are concerned. I think it is a mistake for the teaching profession to be opposing the principle of accountability.

I would try to make it clear to Terry's father and mother that they, too, are being measured.

Whatever those tests show is attributable to the education this child gets in school and also in the home and in the community.

Accepting the case for accountability, I would insist that the school place the same emphasis on measuring of excellence, and would suggest that wherever the State or local school board moves on minimal compentency testing, it pay equal attention to testing for excellence.

I think the accountability should also be in terms that recognize a particular school's special situation. If a school by virtue of community circumstances faces a particularly difficult problem with respect to the student body shows a marked improvement in the level of that particular group during the 12 years or 8 years, they would be given points for that.

In other words, I would simply supplement the minimal competency testing by being clear about who is accountable, by emphasizing excellence as well as minimal competency, and by measuring what this community and school does to its children, over the period of 8 or 12 years.

Senator EAGLETON. What about this question of cultural bias? Is there any of this testing bias?

Mr. WIRTZ. There is bound to be a cultural bias.

There was a story in the paper sometime ago, within the last year, about a gorilla at Stanford who has developed the competency to take some achievement tests. One of the questions was whether, when danger threatens, is it most advisable to move into the house, into a tree, or into an open space. The right answer was supposed to be the house. For the gorilla, it was a tree. I suppose there is a cultural bias reflected there.

I believe, though, that to cultural bias, particularly in terms of racial differences, is not a major factor in this situation. And yet, the society has a cultural bias. Those of different ethnic origins come to this situation as victims of fallouts of disadvantages that we haven't eliminated.

Senator EAGLETON. Your testimony mentions——

Mr. WIRTZ. Perhaps the plainer answer lies in why women score on an average 50 points lower than men on SAT mathematics test.

Senator EAGLETON. Why is that?

Mr. WIRTZ. I believe the society is so sex stereotyped so far as jobs are concerned that in the exercise of good judgment women have not developed an interest in mathematics.

Senator EAGLETON. Might that mass differential explain why there is a verbal differential?

Mr. WIRTZ. I have trouble at home. Mrs. Wirtz is perfectly willing to accept the difference in scores in the math test if there is a reverse difference on the verbal test. Actually, the women's verbal scores have dropped more than the math. I am at a loss to answer you or Mrs. Wirtz. I don't know.

Senator EAGLETON. You mentioned two periods of decline, 1963 to 1971 period and the decline could be attributable to expanding testing base but the more vexing one, in your mind and mine, is 1971-1977, and across-the-board decline, and we have been able to glean from your report about six reasons that are in part held accountable for this decline.

Let me go through the six and if we leave some out, I will go through them one at a time with you.

Part of that 1971 to 1977 decline is attributable, as we read in your report, to reduction in the number of required courses.

Mr. WIRTZ. Yes, sir.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you expand upon that reduction in number of required courses.

Mr. WIRTZ. I said there were three questions in which my answer would be a little different from Dr. Giamatti's. This is one of them.

I am uncertain about this. I don't know whether the critical point is electives or whether it is the degree of excellence that is brought into teaching of whatever course we are talking about.

If there were an unlimited supply of teachers, I would think it all to the good to provide a good many electives, but to see to it that those electives are just not escape hatches through which somebody can get out easily.

If all courses were of comparable degree of difficulty, intensity, excellence, then it would seem to me the case would be made for a wide variety of selection in order to appeal and attract interest of students.

I have made a complicated answer.

Senator EAGLETON. It is not complicated.

Mr. WIRTZ. The fewer electives answer is obviously going to win the day because we do not have unlimited teachers and it is impossible to bring a large number of courses up to the highest levels. I do think one reason for the decline was that we provided escape hatches for students who didn't want to work hard.

Senator EAGLETON. You are not antivocation technical education.

Mr. WIRTZ. No. To the contrary.

Senator EAGLETON. The second reason—these are not in any order of priority—the second reason for this decline, in the 1971 to 1977 period, according to your report goes something as follows: Automatic promotion has a great influence; lowering of textbook and other teaching standards, reduction of homework and lowering of college entrance standards. All of that lumped together.

Mr. WIRTZ. I think that did happen, during that, particularly during particularly during the second half of the decade of the seventies. I think many of the schools and communities lowered their standards as far as educational performances was concerned.

Senator EAGLETON. I subscribe to that.

Discuss increase in TV viewing time. You already discussed that Sesame Street is helpful in grades 1 through 3.

Mr. WIRTZ. Differing from Dr. Giamatti, I would have a real concern as to the effect of television as far as secondary education is concerned. I think television may have contributed to the decline in those scores.

The average child taking the SAT, in 1977 would have spent 15,000 hours watching television. There are no statistics on the effect of this because you can't establish a control group; all of them watch television, so, there is no control group available.

We went into the matter of linear as against visual viewing. When you are reading a line of type or taking an examination, you are using a piece of something over in the left lobe of your brain. When you are watching television, the function is in the right lobe of the brain, or so they say now. Those 15,000 hours spent using the one area rather than the others may have an effect. I just don't know.

The only important question though, is about the potential of television and there can't be any argument but that television represents the most extraordinary potential teaching opportunity we have.

My complaint against television would not be with what it does to the SAT scores. It would be with what it is not doing as far as its potential is concerned. It is good news that Robert Fleming has become chairman of the board of CPB.

The question is how the community goes about controlling the learning that goes on through television, the same way it controls the learning that goes on in education in the schools.

Senator EAGLETON. I agree 100 percent with what you said in that regard. I think it was a few weeks ago when Mr. William Paley, the founding father and chief executive officer of CBS, suggested that each network for two hours each week put on programs of quality and excellence, but that would only work if all three agreed to do it, because he admitted it would be a loser insofar as audience viewing is concerned.

So, if each one of them agreed to do that about once a week in pursuit of quality, that might work.

What a catastrophic indictment of the industry that it would take some kind of a joint agreement that they each try to have two hours a week of something worth viewing instead of absolute garbage in the standard fair and it is getting worse.

Mr. WIRTZ. We were in China last May, in Shanghai, a city of 10 million people with about a hundred televisions.

There are two television channels, one carrying six hours of daylight television and both with three hours at night. There is a total of 12 hours of television showing. Of that 12 hours, nine and a half are devoted to education television.

I don't know whether the nine and a half out of 12 ratio is the right answer for us, but I am equally clear that the comparable

figures in New York or Chicago or Washington or Los Angeles are deplorable.

To pull this point together, E. B. White seems worth quoting: "I believe television is going to be the test of the modern world and that in this new opportunity to see beyond the range of our vision, we shall discover either a new and unbearable disturbance of the general peace or a saving radiance in the sky."

Senator EAGLETON. St. Louis had a school superintendent named William Kottmeyer. His specialty in education was reading. He has gone on to become a millionaire, writing some of the textbooks for McGraw Hill. But in his earlier career, he, himself, was on PBS St. Louis. I think that was from 8:30 to—the hours are irrelevant.

During one of the earlier academic hours, he lectured on reading skills and what have you, and they did some testing to see what a great teacher he was after his lecture series and skills went up. I forget the point scores, may be it was just a coincidence, but even the PBS station in St. Louis thought so that had run its course and he went to bigger and better things.

Your E. B. White quote, I forget those flowery words, it could intellectualize TV and mankind.

The fourth reason, going down our pecking order of reasons, the fourth one tries to explain why this second decline between 1971 and 1977 and labeled it as deterioration of the family unit.

Mr. WIRTZ. I worry about that phrase as possibly susceptible of misinterpretation. We are not suggesting that working mothers are a direct or contributing force to the decline in SAT scores.

You could plot two curves which would show a direct parallel behavior between the decline in SAT scores and the increase in the number of children growing up in this country in less than complete families.

As of 1968, 89 percent of the children in this country reached the age 16 or 18 as members of a complete family, two-parent family: 89 percent. Last year, in 1978, that same figure dropped below 80 percent.

The number of children growing up in less than complete families in this country is increasing at a rate of about 250,000 per year.

There is no study, however, establishing a causal relationship between whatever is going on in families and SAT scores. I am not inclined to moralize about families; but only to suggest that if we are moving away from traditional concepts of family, there are some implications as far as education is concerned.

Senator EAGLETON. The fifth reason, although this relates to the 1971 to 1977 period, is disruption of the life of the country. Is that Vietnam?

Mr. WIRTZ. Vietnam and Watergate. If I had been a high school junior or senior, asked to take a college entrance examination test during the period about 1967 and about 1974 or 1975, I couldn't have brought myself to try too hard to do well on that test. I wouldn't have cared that much about doing well in college. That was a hard time to grow up. I believe there was not a strong inclination to do well on the establishment's entrance examinations.

Senator EAGLETON. I have to wonder about that one.

Mr. WIRTZ. I know I am on weak ground.

Senator EAGLETON. I share the same sentiment with respect to the war in question, but I still have to be convinced that it had impact, although some youngsters—and your own—say these are partial pieces of a bigger puzzle.

Mr. WIRTZ. I expect that if we had it to do over, we would leave that point out of the report. It has attracted quite a lot of notice, and it suggests to some people that we blame this whole score decline on Watergate and Vietnam. Whatever the effect was can't be "proved."

Senator EAGLETON. The sixth and concluding reason: Dimension in Learning Motivation. You heard my exchange with Dr. Giamatti, that 180-odd students tried to get 12 spots in a basic writing course.

Mr. WIRTZ. As the panel entered the final stages of its deliberations, we were attempting to recast the whole report in terms of motivation, because almost all the things we are talking about can be translated into motivation in one way or another.

One group of students whose scores did not decline between 1971 and 1977 was the group who engaged in an unusual amount of extracurricular activity. Those working outside the school showed a similar pattern.

We encountered the difficulty that so little appears to be known about motivation.

The report emphasized that it isn't just the motivation of children, that is involved here, but the motivation of the country as a whole. The late 60s and early 70s represented for this country as a whole a period of less than usual motivation to do the kind of things that are reflected here. The panel calls it a decade of distraction. Our minds were occupied by a number of other things. I think the motivation of society as a whole was down during that period.

Senator EAGLETON. In answer to the question, you used the phrase "* * * working out of school." Were you differentiating students involved in extracurricular activities, and youngsters who had a part-time job?

Mr. WIRTZ. Those are two different groups. The group whose scores on the average did not go down at all was a group engaged in extracurricular activities in connection with school.

In addition, the group of students doing substantial—over 4 hours or something like that—of work outside the school, in paid employment, went down very little. We developed that statistic because it was called to our attention that perhaps it was vocational education, career education, that kind of thing, which was contributing to the decline.

But when we made a study to try to analyze the influence of outside work, we found that the outside work group showed a substantially less-than-average decline.

Senator EAGLETON. The Federal program for monitoring achievement of schoolchildren, the National Assessment of Educational Achievement, released a report in September 1976, comparing reading ability of 9, 13, and 17 between the years 1976 and 1975. The scores showed increased ability in the 9-year olds, and relatively stable scores for the two older groups.

Despite the evidence of the scores, the report went on to say:

When items become more difficult, either as a result of lengthy, complex passages, or because of questions that require some manipulation of information, 17-year olds, and sometimes 13-year olds, perform less well than 9-year olds.

Did this test indicate, as it would seem to, that literal excellence at an early grade is not a pervasive problem? Should we turn our efforts to the secondary level as opposed to the elementary level?

Mr. WIRTZ. If I had to make a choice, I would concentrate on the secondary level. The high schools have gone through an exceedingly hard period. They were faced in the 1960's with a large change in the composition of the student body. That was not so true at the primary and elementary levels. I do think that the appropriate first emphasis is at the secondary level.

I didn't answer the last part of your preceding question on proper motivation, about how to reconcile the fact that 7 out of 8 kids taking the SAT say they don't want help in writing.

Dr. Giamatti indicated that as far as the students at Yale are concerned, there are some 200 who wanted help in writing, where they can take only 12 or 20.

I believe, Mr. Chairman, the figures are entirely reconcilable, because I suspect it was the 1 out of 8, the 12 percent who said on the SAT student questionnaire that they wanted help in writing, who went to Yale and to other comparable schools.

Senator EAGLETON. If I were a student taking an SAT examination, and wanted to get in a lot of schools, and I would like to get help in these basics—if I were playing the admissions game, I would not admit on my questionnaire that I think I needed greater help on the basics.

If I checked that one, Yale or Harvard wouldn't take me.

Mr. WIRTZ. I would be suspicious of those particular figures on the SAT's student description questionnaire.

Senator EAGLETON. With regard to your answer to your secondary versus elementary, my friend, Dr. Kottmeyer, where I previously mentioned, he says emphasis on the basic skills has to be in the first, second, third and fourth grades, because after the fourth grade it is almost too late for most of the students.

Mr. WIRTZ. The point is well taken. I think we would all agree that the early years are the most critical of all. I was really answering your earlier question in terms of what I think was a special problem that developed, as far as high schools were concerned, during the 1960's, and that warrants particular attention today.

That still leaves the basic educational proposition. It is at early ages at which the largest influence is received.

I spent 20 years of my life teaching at the postgraduate level, at three times the salary of a primary schoolteacher, and all I was able to do at best was to make some small adjustments in students' competencies. It is the primary or preschool teachers who influence their lives. That is not equal pay for work of comparable value.

Senator EAGLETON. You refer to encouraging reports from schoolbook publishers, and one of the largest new plans for texts as teaching guides to enlist parent participation in teaching the children.

The new "Basic Skills" has a separate section focusing on parent participation. In your view, can this be used for parents, supplying material to parents?

I would not put it in the way of supplying material to parents. I would like to see what resulted from a pilot experiment in drawing on the available parental and community adjunct help, perhaps involving some pay.

I have questions from my Chairman, Senator Pell.

Mr. WIRTZ. I would share fully the view that something of this kind would be worthwhile. I'm not sure that much can be done through materials, for parents, in themselves. But this would be a proper part of a broader cooperative initiative.

Senator EAGLETON. This is a comment; you and I both blasted television, and I think legitimately so. The one show I occasionally watch is "60 Minutes," and they have a segment in the last 6 months, on "School District X"—I forget which school district. At least it portrayed a very elaborate parental involvement—teaching aids, and scores. In School System X, basic scores far exceeded the national average. I can't recall the average.

Mr. WIRTZ. There are a number of polls—Gallup, Harris—which show an unbelievably high figure for parents who want to participate in the future education of their children. They are up in the 80-90 percent range.

I am not quite sure what the teachers' attitude toward all of this is, and perhaps that should receive attention.

Senator EAGLETON. We note in the report observations on graduate records, and scores, graduate admission scores have declined about the same rate as the decline in SAT scores, while the law school and medical school admissions show increase.

Mr. WIRTZ. Dr. Giamatti has given us the answer. The competition has increased sharply with respect to law school and medical school admissions. To be specific, he referred to a large number—200-some Ph. D's applying for admission to Yale Law School.

Senator EAGLETON. How do you classify? As an unreconstructed New Dealer?

Mr. WIRTZ. I have no question about your noun, but some question about your adjective, unconstructed. It would seem to suggest not having learned anything from experience.

Senator EAGLETON. The reason you have a basic skills section, would you recommend to us some new, elaborate, very expensive Federal category, a program that would somehow solve all of the shortcomings in the area of basic skills.

Mr. WIRTZ. I missed the point of your question. My answer may suggest that I stopped supporting the Federal Government about the time it stopped supporting me. I realize, though, that I am much more inclined than I used to be to recognize that the society's center of gravity is at the local level. I don't think we are going to change a Proposition 13 mentality, at the Federal level. I think we will change that when people are given an opportunity to participate themselves, and the only place you can get direct participation is at the local community level.

So, I come to the conclusion that the future lies—to a degree I didn't realize before—in the stimulation of the local community's initiative, not just in local carrying out of Federal programs. There

will have to be Federal funds, but I think they will be allocated increasingly to programs which say to the community, in one form or another, "Do it your way."

I have changed my mind quite a bit on that.

Senator EAGLETON. So have I.

I yield to my colleague, the chairman of the committee.

Senator PELL. I thank you very much.

We have had, in this series of hearings, one continuing question. SAT scores are going down, we all know, and one of the reasons, perhaps, may be that some young people are taking advanced placement tests. Thus, they do not get included, in the basic SAT test results. Are there more advanced placement students, today then 10 years ago? Do you have any statistics on this, and on how advanced placement students affect the basic SAT scores?

Mr. WIRTZ. Yes. We did try to identify that. We thought at first, that it had larger significance, than proved to be the case. The decline has been about 30 to 50 points, roughly 30 on the mathematics and 50 on the reading. It appears that the advanced placement practice may explain 2 or 3 points of those 30 or 50.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Wirtz. As with Dr. Giamatti, you have been a very, very useful and thoughtful witness, and we appreciate your giving your time.

At this point, Mr. Wirtz, we will include as a part of the record of these hearings a copy of the report of the Advisory Panel on the Scholastic Aptitude Test Score Decline, "On Further Examination."

[The information referred to follows:]

On Further Examination

Report of the Advisory Panel on the Scholastic Aptitude Test Score Decline

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Willard Wirtz, *chairman*
Harold Howe II, *vice chairman*
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Robert L. Thorndike
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Benjamin S. Bloom

College Entrance Examination Board
New York, 1977

Prefatory Note

"No topic related to the programs of the College Board has received more public attention in recent years than the unexplained decline in scores earned by students on the Scholastic Aptitude Test. The trustees and the officers of the College Board believe that we must do all that we can to investigate and interpret this phenomenon to the public at large. . . .

"We are appointing a blue-ribbon panel to assist in making sense out of the complex and interrelated issues involved. The panel will be asked to audit the steps already taken to insure the psychometric integrity of the tests, to suggest additional ones if appropriate, to examine other kinds of research already done, and to identify research that still needs to be done in order to deal effectively with the score decline issue as it relates to candidate population, secondary education, and society."

With these words, written in October 1975 in my capacity as president of the College Board, and in consultation with William W. Turnbull. president of Educational Testing Service, I invited the 21 members of the Advisory Panel on the Scholastic Aptitude Test Score Decline to undertake this work. They were asked to function "as an advisory body to the presidents of the College Board and Educational Testing Service," and in that capacity "to consider the matter of the SAT score decline and assist in the [development of an] understanding of it."

The panelists have been extraordinarily generous in the investment of their personal time and effort, and they have brought to the problem a level of professional expertise that would be hard to match. In addition to the four lengthy plenary sessions held by the full panel and the several meetings of its three working subgroups, uncounted hours of homework and individual exchanges of correspondence surrounded the deliberative process. The discussions at each session were based on diligent advance attention to a wealth of background materials requested by the members and produced by internal and external researchers. The panel's deliberations were also enriched by the availability of a number of contemporary external documents dealing with various aspects of the score decline issue. About two-thirds of the costs of the panel-generated investigations, as well as the expenses of the panel itself, have been borne by the College Board, with the rest underwritten by Educational Testing Service.

Although the panel was technically appointed to advise the College Board and Educational Testing Service, its mission from the start emphasized its independence, including the freedom to deliberate such issues as it chose to consider and to report its findings in the public interest, whether or not they might be critical of the College Board or ETS. Consistent with that spirit, the College Board is pleased to publish the panel's report as it was submitted to us. In doing so, the College Board and ETS re-

serve the right – indeed, recognize their responsibility – to comment over time on its findings as particularly interested members of the educational community and the greater society we seek to serve. Meanwhile, I wish to express President Turnbull's and my appreciation to the members of the panel and to commend their report to the attention of all who care about education in the United States.

S. P. Marland, Jr.
July 1977

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Acknowledgments

The panel's debts are so many that simple acknowledgment of the largest of them will have to suffice.

Edmund J. Farrell and Alfred L. Putnam, chairmen of the College Board's Discipline Committees in English and Mathematics, respectively, served in effect as members of the panel, taking full part in our discussions and providing special insights and assistance.

George H. Hanford, senior vice president of the College Board, contributed immeasurably to the panel's functioning. The delicate role he played as chief of staff and intermediary was vital to our effort to be both fully informed and objectively critical. Yvonne Wharton worked closely with him in all of this, as did Lillian Tucci.

Paul Barton, senior associate at the National Manpower Institute, shared the responsibilities of the panel's chairman. Arlene Huff helped draft after draft through its dreariest stage.

The officers and staffs of the College Board and ETS provided us with assistance in extraordinary measure.

We asked a number of people outside the panel for information and for reactions and are indebted to them for their response. We have also benefited greatly from the communications received from several hundred individuals who have written simply in expression of their concerns about this subject.

Willard Wirtz, *chairman*

Introduction

Every year, for 14 years now, there has been a drop in the average scores more than a million high school juniors and seniors get on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) they take in seeking admission to college. The panel has been asked by the College Board (which sponsors the SAT) and Educational Testing Service (ETS) (which develops and administers it) to look into this situation and to report publicly its findings and conclusions about the score decline. This is that report.

Starting with the technical aspects of the score decline as they appear under microscopic scrutiny and seem to permit objective analysis, we try in the later parts of the report to provide broader perspective. This means proceeding from what we have been able to establish on the basis of available data, to what we believe is reasonable interpretation of broader evidence, to what we speculate about as concerned individuals.

The particular interest of the College Board and ETS is in determining whether anything about the test itself has contributed to the decline in scores. Following a factual statement in Part One, we deal with this set of questions in Part Two.

The public's interest however, is not in the psychometric technicalities of the SAT score decline but in its implications regarding what is widely perceived as serious deterioration of the learning process in America. More and more high school graduates show up in college classrooms, employers' personnel offices, or at other common checkpoints with barely a speaking acquaintance with the English language and no writing facility at all. Parents watch children come home from school, without homework, to sit passively hour after hour and day after day in front of television sets until they have spent more time there than anyplace else except in bed. Although the SAT score figures are too small a window for surveying this broad condition, they provide special insight into it.

A major part of the decline in college entrance examination scores, especially in its earlier stages, is clearly traceable to a change in the composition of the student group taking the test, resulting from the deliberate and historic decision in this country in the 1960s to extend and expand educational opportunity and to eliminate previous discrimination in according it. The SAT data permit a relatively objective determination—covered in Part Three of the report—of the effects on the test scores of the changing composition of the group taking these examinations.

Equally clearly, the score decline also reflects, particularly in the 1970s, the operation of other more pervasive forces. Although the test score statistics do not themselves indicate the nature of these forces, there are available data that permit informed conjecture about the impact on learning of changes that have taken place in both the schools and the society during a period of turbulence and distraction rarely

paralleled in American history. This context is described and discussed in Part Four.

The sources on which we have relied are indicated in Reference Notes at the end of the report. Many of these sources are special studies made for the panel, and they are available in a separate volume of Appendixes to the report.

No one of us on the panel would have put everything in the report in the form it takes here. We share the feeling, nevertheless, that this comes close enough to what seems important to all of us to warrant submerging our small differences so that our larger agreement is plain.

Part One. The Scholastic Aptitude Test and the Score Decline

THE Scholastic Aptitude Test has been used since the 1920s to help determine high school students' apparent preparedness for college. Many colleges and universities require applicants for admission to submit SAT scores for consideration along with high school academic and extracurricular records, letters of recommendation, and the results of personal interviews. Others make similar use of a comparable examination administered by the American College Testing (ACT) Program. Still others require no standardized college entrance examination.

Given in different editions several times a year at locations all over the country, the SAT is taken primarily by seniors but also by a large number of juniors and by a few others. Some students take it more than once. The roughly one million young people in each high school senior class who take the SAT represent approximately a quarter of their age group as a whole and about half of the number going on to college. The figures for the past 26 years are in Table 1.

The SAT includes a Verbal and a Mathematical part. Scores for both parts are computed and reported separately on a scale of 200 to 800. Two and a half hours are allowed for taking the test. (The time, originally three hours, was shortened in 1973 to permit adding the 30-minute Test of Standard Written English; but the results on the latter test are not included in the reported SAT scores.)

The Mathematical portion of the SAT, which requires as background mathematics typically taught in grades one through nine, depends less on formal knowledge than on reasoning; it measures students' problem-solving ability in three areas—arithmetic reasoning, elementary algebra, and geometry. The Verbal portion, designed to assess reading skills and understanding of word relationships, covers four areas—antonyms, analogies, sentence completion, and reading comprehension; the material for this test is drawn from social, political, scientific, artistic, philosophical, and literary writing. Sample questions from the SAT are included at the end of the report.

The panel has reviewed the SAT score pattern as it has developed over the past 26 years. These figures are in Table 2 and Chart A. For convenience, we refer throughout the report to the year in which an academic or SAT year *ends*—to 1952, as an example, for 1951-52. Wherever we refer to the number of SAT takers or the average scores in a particular year, the reference will be, for all years since 1966, to the *number or the scores of high school seniors taking the test*—as distinguished from the *total number of tests taken that year* (which was the basis on which the records were kept prior to 1967); this permits better comparisons between particular groups, or "cohorts" of students. Finally, when we refer to SAT "scores" the reference is to what are technically "scaled scores."

Table 1. Numbers of 18-year-olds, high school graduates, first-time, degree-credit enrollments, and SAT takers, 1951-52 to 1976-77 (in thousands)

	18-year-olds[1]	*High school graduates*[2]	*First-time, degree-credit enrollment*[3]	*SAT tests taken*[4]
1951-52	2,058.0	1,196.5	532.3	81.2
1952-53	2,160.0	1,198.3	566.0	95.5
1953-54	2,135.0	1,276.1	624.9	118.1
1954-55	2,142.0	1,351.0	668.1	154.5
1955-56	2,244.0	1,414.8	715.0	208.6
1956-57	2,274.0	1,439.0	721.5	270.5
1957-58	2,307.0	1,505.9	772.3	376.8
1958-59	2,431.0	1,639.0	818.3	469.7
1959-60	2,613.0	1,864.0	923.1	564.2
1960-61	2,976.0	1,971.0	1,018.4	716.3
1961-62	2,816.0	1,925.0	1,030.6	802.5
1962-63	2,786.0	1,950.0	1,046.4	933.1
1963-64	2,763.0	2,290.0	1,224.8	1,163.9
1964-65	3,804.0[5]	2,665.0	1,441.8	1,361.2
1965-66	3,536.0	2,632.0	1,378.0	1,381.4
1966-67	3,545.0	2,679.0	1,439.0	1,422.5
1967-68	3,539.0	2,702.0	1,629.8	1,543.8
1968-69	3,676.0	2,829.0	1,748.7	1,585.6
1969-70	3,780.0	2,896.0	1,780.1	1,605.9
1970-71	3,875.0	2,943.0	1,765.6	1,537.2
1971-72	3,970.0	3,006.0	1,740.4	1,459.9
1972-73	4,0[illegible]	3,037.0	1,756.9	1,398.4
1973-74	4,093.0	3,069.0	1,854.4	1,354.0
1974-75	4,243.0	3,140.0	1,910.0	1,371.2
1975-76	4,253.0[6]	3,[illegible].0(est.)	2,008.0(est.)	1,41[illegible]
1976-77	4,239.0(est.)[6]	3,147.0(est.)	2,[illegible]08.0(est.)	1,401.9

1. Age as of July 1 of the later year. Estimates based on the April 1 decennial census surveys modified by records of births, deaths, immigration for intervening years. Estimates are for the total population, including Armed Forces overseas, the resident population, and the civilian population. (U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P25, No. 311, 519, and 614, "Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race." U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.)

2. Includes regular public and nonpublic schools, residential schools for exceptional children, subcollegiate departments of institutions of higher education, federal schools for Indians, and federally operated schools on federal installations. Includes equivalency certificates. Prior to 1960 data were collected only every other year, those ending in an even number. Beginning in 1959-60, Alaska and Hawaii are included. (National Center for Education Statistics, *Projections of Education Statistics*, annual. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.)

3. Opening fall enrollment of [illegible] degree-credit students the following year. [illegible] in 1960, Alaska and Hawaii are included. [illegible] in 1953, extension students are included. (National Center for Education Statistics, *Digest of Education Statistics, 1975 edition*. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.)

4. Figures listed are for number of SATS taken in a given testing year. Candidates may be from any grade and are counted more than once if they repeated the test (College Entrance Examination Board).

5. This figure, which appears so high as to suggest error, is confirmed by reference to birth statistics (on comparable fiscal year basis) for 1945-46 and 1946-47.

6. Information from National Center for Education Statistics, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, June 28, 1977.

In 1952, the SAT-Verbal score average for all test takers was 476 and the SAT-Mathematical average 494. Although there were year-to-year fluctuations in these averages, they remained substantially level but moved up slightly through the 1950s and into the early 1960s; by 1963, the SAT-Verbal average was up 2 points to 478, the SAT-Mathematical average up 8 points to 502. Then in 1964, both score averages started dropping. They have dropped ever since, considerably more on the Verbal than on the Mathematical part of the test. The decline, relatively gradual through about 1970, became sharper after that, especially for the Verbal scores. The past two years have suggested a possible leveling out.

The panel has considered how far back to go in trying to analyze this scoring pattern. A 20-year comparison (1957 to 1977) would show about the same decline that a comparison of the 1963 and 1977 figures does. It is generally assumed that the increase in SAT scores in the early 1960s, especially the spurt that made 1963 a high year, may have reflected the results of the post-Sputnik acceleration of educational effort in this country; and this may have significance in appraising the present prospects, which we consider real, of a comparable recovery during the next few years.

The statistical evidence for that earlier period is exceedingly thin, however, except for the SAT scores themselves. We have accordingly concentrated on the 1963-to-1977 decline: the 49-point drop during this 14-year period in the score average on the Verbal part (from 478 in 1963 to 429 for 1977), and a 32-point drop (from 502 to 470) on the Mathematical part. The Mathematical decline is 31 points, if the comparison is made on an "All candidates" basis for both years.

How significant is this decline?

When the "standard deviations" involved here are taken into account, the decline in scores means that only about a third of the 1977 test takers do as well as half of those taking the SAT in 1963 did. But *how much* worse are students doing now than their counterparts used to do? Although this can't be answered with precision, a decline of this magnitude continuing over a 14-year period, following a previous period of stable or even slightly rising score averages, is clearly serious business.

The decline must be put, at the same time, in broader perspective.

Any generalization from the SAT statistics has to be carefully qualified. It should not be extended to cover the situation of American youth as a whole or the overall effectiveness of the learning process.

The college entrance examinations are represented by the agencies administering them only as indicating students' probable accomplishments in terms of college academic grades, particularly their first-year grades. Recently published College Board *Guidelines on the Uses of College Board Test Scores and Related Data* warn sharply against their misuse as measures of the broader effectiveness of elementary and secondary education in general.

The SAT figures cover only students who are still in high school at the 11th and 12th grades and who are considering going on to college, particularly to colleges or universities requiring applicants to take the SAT. This is a significantly different test-taking population, a different cross section of young people, from what it was 14 years ago. The score decline has taken place, furthermore, during a period of such

Table 2. Scholastic Aptitude Test Score Means, 1951-52 to 1976-77

Academic year	SAT-Verbal		SAT-Mathematical	
	All candidates[1]	High school seniors[2]	All candidates[1]	High school seniors[2]
1951-52	476		494	
1952-53	476		495	
1953-54	472		490	
1954-55	475		496	
1955-56	479		501	
1956-57	473		496	
1957-58	472		496	
1958-59	475		498	
1959-60	477		498	
1960-61	474		495	
1961-62	473		498	
1962-63	478		502	
1963-64	475		498	
1964-65	473		496	
1965-66	471		496	
1966-67	467	466	495	492
1967-68	466	466	494	492
1968-69	462	463	491	493
1969-70	460	460	488	488
1970-71	454	455	487	488
1971-72	450	453	482	484
1972-73	443	445	481	481
1973-74	440	444	478	480
1974-75	437	434	473	472
1975-76	429	431	470	472
1976-77	429	429	471	470

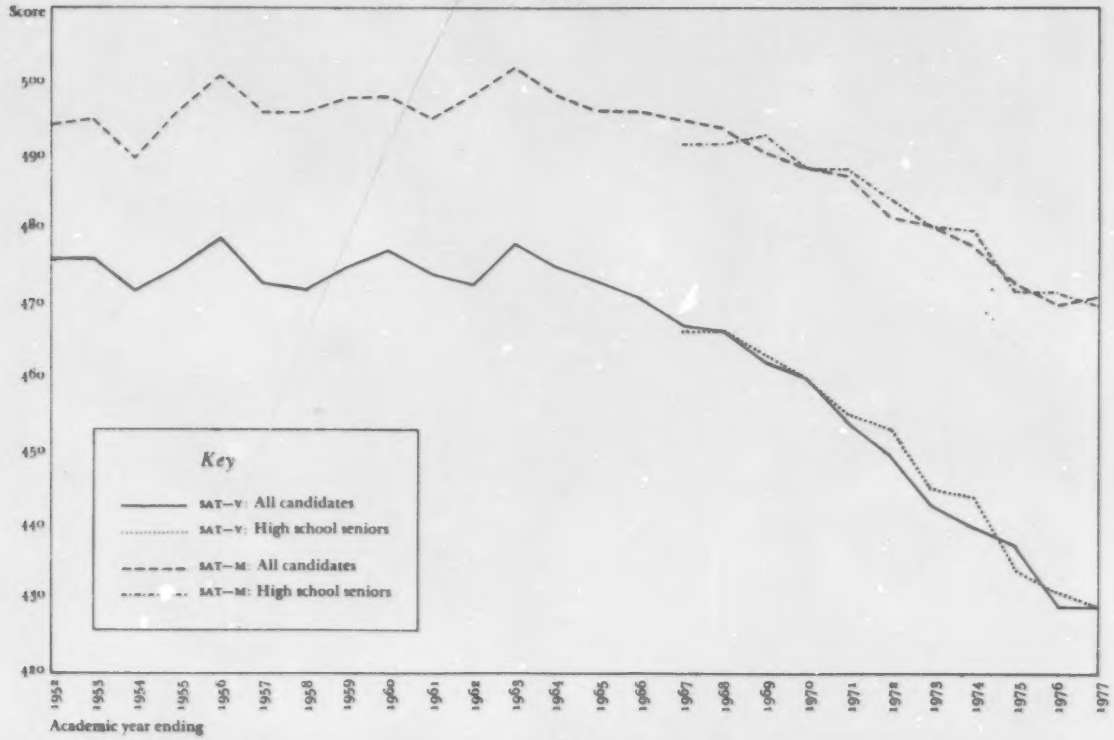
1. An individual is counted as many times as he or she is tested.

2. Each candidate is counted only once, using latest score earned (figures for 1967 through 1971 are estimates; for 1972 through 1977 are actual).

extraordinary national disruption, with particular effects on young people, that the change in the SAT score pattern is properly appraised only with full recognition of that context.

The report proceeds on the basis of the panel's persuasion that the score decline reflects a situation demanding serious attention but warranting, at the same time, cool-headedness about both the assessment of responsibility and the instruction this experience offers the future.

Chart A. Scholastic Aptitude Test Scaled Score Means, 1952 to 1977



Part Two. An Unchanging Standard

FEW teachers worth the name ever settle two inner struggles: about the consistency of tests and grades with learning's ideals, and about whether to hold successive classes to a constant standard of measurement or to grade each of them "to the curve"—so that the proportion of high, medium, and low grades stays the same even though the overall quality level changes.

The SAT is designed to be an unchanging measurement. In technical terms, the score scales for the Verbal and Mathematical sections were established in 1941 and 1942, with mean scores of 500 and standard deviations of 100. Considerable effort has been made since that time to keep the test a sufficiently constant measure so that any particular score received on a current test indicates the same level of ability to do college work that the same score did 36 or 20 or 5 or 2 years ago. The SAT measures individual students' capacities not only in comparison with their peers in the particular group but also in comparison with those who took the test in earlier years.

This suggests two possible explanations of the SAT score decline involving the test itself. Because most of the SAT questions are changed with each new edition of the test, it could happen that the test would become inherently more difficult to score well on—"harder" than it used to be as a consequence of changes in the test questions and in the equating and scaling procedures involved in determining scaled scores.

An apparently converse possibility presents what is actually a very different type of issue. If the test were kept the same in every respect, but if those taking it were trained in different pursuits or by processes less consonant with the test, the resultant disjuncture would also present a possible explanation of a decline in the test scores. The point would be not that the test had changed but that by staying the same it had become less relevant to the training preceding it.

As It Was in the Beginning

The SAT score decline does not result from changes in the test or in the methods of scoring it.

Although we have gone to considerable lengths in exploring this possibility, there is no point in laboring the conclusion. The ETS procedures for "equating" successive editions of the test (by including in each new edition key questions from earlier tests and then "scaling" raw scores according to the performance on these questions) and for checking against "item obsolescence" are as sophisticated and reliable as the state of the psychometric art permits. We find complete agreement about this in the profession, and we have pressed the matter to the point of adequate lay understanding and concurrence.

These procedures neither pretend to nor do achieve perfection. In fact, two technical analyses of the equating and scaling practices, made at the panel's request (one comparing 1972 and 1960 data; the other, 1973 and 1963), indicate an "upward drift" of between 8 and 12 points in the scaling of the scores. In order to check this, a substantial group of high school students (3,174 from 66 schools) was given both 1963 and 1973 editions of the test, half of them taking the 1963 test first and half starting with the 1973 test. The results confirmed the earlier technical analysis: the test takers averaged higher scores on the 1973 tests than on the 1963 tests, both Verbal and Mathematical. This means that the declines in the ability the SAT measures have been from 8 to 12 points larger than the recorded and reported scores indicate. The panel considered casting its report in terms of figures adjusted to reflect this difference, but decided against this because of the impossibility of identifying the year or years in which the drift occurred.

A special inquiry was made into the possibility that the shortening of the SAT in 1973 from 3 hours to 2 1/2 (in order to accommodate the half-hour Test of Standard Written English) might have had some relationship to the sharp drop that year in the SAT scores. We are satisfied that it did not. The most careful precautions possible were taken to assure that the reduced item selection would not result in changing the difficulty of the test.

We have also looked into the question of whether the decline in the SAT scores has affected their "validity" as predictors of individuals' college performance. It has not.

A detailed review made for the panel of the experience between 1964 and 1974 in a substantial number of colleges discloses some minor but interesting variations in the pattern of the SAT's predictive effectiveness, depending on the type of college involved (four-year or two-year), on the test takers' sex, and on whether they come from higher, lower, or middle SAT-score groupings. There were also some perhaps significant changes in this pattern during that 10-year period: the median validity coefficients (which are measures of the predictive capacity of the test) went down in general during the late 1960s and then went up sharply in the early 1970s. Some slight additional illumination is provided by looking at a number of studies that have been made of comparative validities of the SAT, as well as other academic predictors, for students with different ethnic backgrounds.

Although some of these variations in the validity pattern probably warrant further analysis for other reasons, they reveal no lessening of the value of the SAT as a predictor of first-year college academic accomplishment. The predictive validity of both the Verbal and the Mathematical parts of the SAT increased between 1970 and 1974 in the colleges that had validity studies made during that period, while the predictive validity of high school grade records was staying about level. High school grades are still the best single predictors of college performance, but when these grades are combined with SAT scores more accurate prediction proves possible. It illuminates this picture only for those expert in the field to note that, as of 1974, the median validity coefficients for the combined six samples used in the ETS study were .39 for the SAT-Mathematical score, .42 for the SAT-Verbal score, .50 for high school grade records, and .58 for the three predictors combined. The comparable median validity coefficients in 1970 were .29 for SAT-Mathematical, .37 for SAT-Verbal, .49

for high school grade records, .56 for the three predictors combined. For the layman, this says that the SAT remains a useful, but far from perfect, predictor of college performance.

- In general, and after checking the technical and psychometric aspects of the SAT thoroughly, the panel finds consistent confirmation that the score decline has not resulted from changes in the testing instrument. The scaling and equating and item-obsolescence procedures that are followed are reliable, and the predictive validity of the test is slightly higher than it was before. The standard established in this test has remained substantially constant, and the decline the scores reflect is, if anything, slightly larger than the reported record indicates.

A Changing Context?

The harder question to answer is about the possible effect on SAT scores of a changing "relevancy" of the test because of its being kept the same despite changes in curriculums, in educational policies and practices, and in learning's processes.

We consider later in the report (Part Four) whether the score decline may have resulted in part from reduced concentration on the "basics" of reading and writing and arithmetic and from a possible lowering of standards in elementary and secondary education. The "relevancy" point, however, though it is related in one sense to those questions, goes beyond them and has a different character. The suggestion is that in the 36 years since the present SAT standard was established the society has set new and different (as distinguished from higher or lower) learning goals, that the colleges or schools or both have adopted new priorities in education, that different learning and communication processes have come into use, and that part of the reason for the decline in the SAT averages is that the test does not reflect these changes.

In one view of this line of reasoning, there is a short and complete answer to it. If the value base of the SAT is accepted as being solely the prediction of college academic performance, the critical fact is that the test's predictive validity is actually somewhat higher than it used to be. The panel's further investigation reveals a similarly increasing positive correlation over the past 10 years between SAT scores and students' grades in high school. These two findings seem to leave little basis for the suggestion that the SAT has gotten out of line with either secondary or postsecondary practices or standards—so far, that is, as these practices and standards are reflected in students' academic grades.

This doesn't actually meet, however, the broader criticism of the college entrance examinations. It is partly an objection to the common misuse of the test scores. A student leader and valedictorian in a District of Columbia high school was recently denied admission to a college because his SAT scores were low. High schools are being measured by the averages the college-bound segment of these graduates get on the college entrance examinations. The College Board's warnings against these practices are disregarded. When these test scores and averages are used as exclusive or *overall* measurements of individual or institutional quality or accomplishment, a very

real "relevancy" issue arises.

The challenge goes further. Recognizing the continuing correlation between high school grades, SAT scores, and college grades, the criticism is that this correlation covers less and less of what is important here. With grade inflation rampant in both secondary and postsecondary education, even while remedial courses have to be added constantly to first-year college curriculums, the argument seems increasingly pertinent. The correlation between grades and scores and then more grades could increase or decline or stay level, even while there was dangerous deterioration or healthy improvement *by broader measures* on both sides of the secondary/postsecondary divide. That correlation might come to apply to a smaller and smaller part of the learning actually going on.

This raises issues going beyond the panel's assignment and its competence. We have accepted, for purposes of this inquiry and report, the traditional value base of the SAT – its validity, that is, as an instrument helpful in the determination of students' likely academic performance. We have considered, in Part Four of the report, the question of whether less concentration on "basic" courses and an apparent relaxation of standards has had an effect on the SAT averages. So far as the relevancy issue goes beyond this it gets into broad and basic questions of educational policy.

Yet we feel strongly that this set of issues warrants further consideration by those more fully qualified than we are, working from a broader charter, for we have gotten a strong sense of possibly basic change taking place in the relationship between secondary and postsecondary education, and particularly in the function of testing in connection with the passage from high school to college.

We are concerned about the relationship between traditional testing techniques and the introduction into the learning processes of new forms of communication and teaching instruments: tape recorders, films and film strips, television (to which we return later), and the like. The lack of either quantifiable or other clear evidence is not enough answer to those who suggest that tests in the conventional college entrance examination form do not measure competencies developed in the schools through increasing reliance on new combinations of kinetic, audio, and visual – "kin-audio-visual" – teaching materials and processes.

We note the strongly held beliefs of many that different forms of testing would facilitate the effective and constructive transition of young people from high school to college. Questions are raised about the assumption that this testing should be based exclusively on predicting only college academic performance, particularly grades in first-year courses. There is the suggestion that consideration can and should be taken of the fact that different individuals are, as high school juniors and seniors, at such different stages of their personal development. Others question the effect of the "speededness" of tests, the use in them of uncommon words, and their possible penalization of test takers' putting ideas in personal terms.

A broader listing of questions of similar kind is included in the report of the *Conference on Declining Test Scores* held in June 1975 by the National Institute of Education. That report includes an invaluable summary of the areas in which additional research and analysis appear warranted.

The panel accordingly commends further inquiry by the Board and ETS into the

function of tests at this critical passage point. In broader terms, the agencies administering college entrance examinations have a superior opportunity to engage in what is in effect a brokering function between secondary and postsecondary education in this country – a function we consider critically important and in general too little exercised by either public or private agencies.

We are not suggesting any compromising of the levels of acceptable educational standards, for we count those currently accepted too low. The purpose of such inquiry would be to identify and put in appropriate priority whatever can be distilled from current national concerns about the society's educational values, and then to evaluate the traditional tests in the light of that determination.

Part Three. The Two Score Declines

FOURTEEN years of uninterrupted decline in the SAT scores create the illusion that there is some single force or closely related set of forces at work here. This isn't the case. The decline has developed in two distinct stages, characterized by significantly different balances of materially different causal factors.

During the first six or seven years of the decline the composition of the SAT-taking population was changing markedly. Each year it included larger proportions of characteristically lower-scoring groups of students. This pulled the overall average down. There were only slight falloffs during that period in the score means *within* any particular ability groups.

The pattern changed after about 1970. The "compositional" shifts slowed down materially. What showed up increasingly was an across-the-board score decline, the apparent consequence of more "pervasive" changes or influences affecting higher- and lower-scoring groups alike.

Compositional Change

It is already hard to remember the extraordinary confluence of forces that struck the educational system in the 1960s.

About 1,864,000 students graduated from high school in 1960, and some 564,000 juniors and seniors took the SAT that year. Ten years later the number of graduates had increased by a million, and the number of SAT takers had tripled.

This was partly a demographic change. Between 1964 and 1965 the number of 18-year-olds in the country jumped by more than a million. That was when the post-World-War-II population wave first hit this age level. It was also the time the SAT average scores started down.

By what was probably more than coincidence, the nation decided during that same period to reduce the high school dropout rate and to see to it that a larger percentage of young people had the opportunity to go on to college.

Perhaps it was a historical accident that this was also the time of tardy legislative decision to attack previous discrimination in providing educational opportunity, particularly discrimination based on race, sex, and family income.

Twenty-five years ago, only half of all young Americans were staying in school through the 12th grade; this fraction grew by 1964 to two-thirds and by 1970 to three-fourths. The proportion going on to college was about one-fourth in 1952, about a third in 1964, and almost half by 1970. (There are different published school completion statistics. The panel has relied on the Census Bureau series, which mea-

sures retention in terms of the number of students who entered the fifth grade and are still in school at various subsequent grade levels.)

It would be pleasant to think that as increased percentages of vastly larger numbers of young people stay in school longer and go on to college, the college entrance examination averages achieved before by a favored fraction of students could be held constant. Yet any such expectation would be ruefully unrealistic. The major move toward equality of opportunity in the 1960s will be judged unfairly unless it is recognized that an increasing school retention rate is bound to mean, at least at first, some drop in the *average* developed ability level (as reflected in traditional tests) of the larger number staying the course. Yet the record for the years between 1950 and 1963 indicates that the effect of this need not be either serious or enduring.

The details of the changes that took place in the composition of the SAT population during the first period of the decline are hard to identify, for no biographical data were collected on these test takers before 1972. This kind of information is available, however, in connection with two other sets of tests: those given as part of Project TALENT in 1960 and those included in the National Longitudinal Study of the class of 1972. It has proved possible to equate the reading examinations on those two tests, to identify (from ETS records) students who took one or the other of them and also took the SAT, and so to reconstruct in terms of biographical data two SAT cohorts, one for 1960 and the other for 1972. There is also relevant evidence available from the Student Profile studies made since 1966 by the American College Testing (ACT) Program and from the series of Freshman National Norm studies made by the American Council on Education (ACE).

What is clearest from all these data is that, starting in about the mid-1960s, cumulatively larger *percentages* of students with comparatively lower high school grade averages were going on to college. The ACE Freshman National Norm study shows this directly, as do the ACT Student Profile data for those students taking that college entrance examination.

This shift appears to have been sharpest of all among the SAT-taking group. The composite study (of Project TALENT, National Longitudinal Study, and SAT data) shows this in various ways, based on a comparison of scaled score averages on the equated 1960 and 1972 reading tests of all these groups. The averages of the SAT takers dropped by twice as much on these reading tests as did those of high school seniors as a whole, reflecting the increasing percentage of lower scorers among those taking the SAT. In 1960, over half (55.4 percent) of the SAT takers came from the highest-scoring groups (top 20 percent) on the Project TALENT and National Longitudinal Study reading tests; in 1972, this had dropped to a little over a third (36.4 percent). The significance of this decline among the SAT takers is emphasized by the fact that a 1970 repeat of the 1960 Project TALENT Reading Comprehension Test showed a slight gain among 11th-grade students *as a whole*—despite the fact that the proportion of the age group staying on in school through that grade level had increased from 77 percent in 1960 to 87 percent in 1970.

There is limited usefulness, however, in a finding that the first stage of the SAT score decline resulted in large part from the fact that proportionately more students with

demonstrated lower scoring records began taking it. This advances the analysis of what happened here only from one set of examination scores to another. To look with constructive intent for the root causes of the decline requires pressing further into the *reasons* for these differences in scoring capacity.

There were significant increases during the earlier period of the SAT score decline in the proportionate numbers in the test-taking population of three groups that have always registered substantially lower-than-average scores on this test: students from lower-socioeconomic-status families, members of minority ethnic groups, and (on the Mathematical but not on the Verbal portion of the test) women.

Students from families with the lowest incomes (under $6,000 in 1977 figures) average about 100 points lower on both the Verbal and Mathematical parts of the SAT than do those from families with the highest incomes ($18,000 and over); and the score averages go up consistently from one intermediate income level to the next. Students' scores also vary, on the average though with many exceptions, with the educational attainment levels of their parents.

An analysis of the 1960 Project TALENT and the 1972 National Longitudinal Study data shows substantial increases over that period in the percentages of students from the lower socioeconomic quarters who went on to college and decreases (although these characteristics are not direct functions of each other) in the percentages from the two higher quarters. These changes are more marked than those emerging when comparisons are made in terms of *ability* (as identified in terms of high school grades). When these figures are broken down to separate students going on to four-year colleges (principal users of the SAT) from those entering two-year colleges, the shifts become even larger with respect to the four-year college group.

Although the data regarding ethnic group score differentials and test-taking population changes during the 1960s are sparse, the picture is relatively clear with respect to whites and blacks (but with too little information to go on, as far as other minority groups are concerned).

Very few blacks or other minority ethnic group members were taking the SAT in the early 1960s. As of 1966, some 5 percent of the first-year college students reported on the ACE National Norms Study were black (and 91 percent white), but few of them were in colleges using the SAT. An estimate of black SAT takers in 1963 of between 1 and 2 percent of the SAT population would probably be high. The ACE studies show the percentage of black freshmen rising to 8.7 percent by 1972 and remaining at about that level since that time. By that year, too, the SAT Student Descriptive Questionnaire showed about 8 percent of the test takers to be black, and this figure has gone up only slightly in subsequent years.

A 1965-66 study of the equality of educational opportunity, made by James S. Coleman for the United States Commissioner of Education, reports 12th-grade-level achievement score averages for blacks "about one standard deviation below those of . . . whites, which means that about 85 percent of the [black] scores are below the white average." A roughly comparable picture is provided by the Student Descriptive Questionnaire data, with blacks averaging approximately 100 points below the overall average on the Verbal and about 115 points lower on the Mathematical part of the SAT.

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Women and men have traditionally averaged about the same scores on the Verbal portion of the SAT, but there has been a marked difference in the Mathematical averages. In 1960 the Mathematical means (as derived from the composite study made for the panel) were 465 for women, 520 for men. Twelve years later, the average for women was virtually unchanged, but the average for men had dropped by 14 points (to 506). The 1977 Mathematical figures are 445 for women, 497 for men.

Women represented 42.7 percent of the SAT-taking group in 1960 and 47.5 percent in 1970.

Yet such groupings of SAT takers, like those in terms of grades on other tests, relate to only the superficial aspects of the score decline. The *causes* of whatever is reflected here lie in the *reasons* these groups score lower.

The suggestion is sometimes made that the SAT is culturally biased. Definitive analysis of cultural bias is virtually impossible. These same differences show up on most other standardized tests, and yet this proves nothing. The panel's inquiry into the test design procedures followed by ETS confirms that special efforts have been made to avoid the suggested prejudices. Cultural bias would appear to be more likely to affect the Verbal part than it would the Mathematical part of the test; but the differences between the averages for various ethnic groups are larger for Mathematical scores than they are for Verbal scores. Although the available information is incomplete, the predictive validity of the SAT *appears* to be substantially the same for students in different ethnic groups and for women and men.

The significant "biases" involved here clearly go much deeper and concern the society more than the tests.

We struggle as a nation against the fact that the unevenness of children's educational accomplishments parallels, in general though with many exceptions, the educational and economic attainments of their parents. When an increase in the percentage of economically disadvantaged students staying in high school and taking college entrance examinations results in lowering the average scores on these tests, one thing this says is that the national effort to neutralize this kind of disadvantage is still incomplete.

Score differences between blacks and whites parallel closely the differences in averages between students from low- and high-income families and between those whose parents have differing levels of education. Beyond this, two centuries of racial bigotry have unquestionably left an educational system that still serves blacks and other minority groups less well than whites, particularly when it comes to meeting traditionally accepted "majority" standards. The contributing cause of the score decline is not that more minority group members now take the SAT, but that despite statutory guarantees of equal opportunity the society has not yet developed either the educational means or the mores that will bring children with different racial roots to a parity of aptitude – as the SAT and other tests measure it – by the time they reach the 12th grade.

That women score lower than men on the Mathematical sections of the SAT almost unquestionably reflects more than anything else the traditional sex stereotyping of career opportunities and expectations.

In all these respects, the national decision made in the 1960s was to attempt to

neutralize the discriminatory aspects of cultural differentiations. To the extent that less-economically advantaged young people, minority group members, and women still score lower on college entrance examinations than do their counterparts, one of the causes of that score decline is properly identified as being the incompleteness so far of the society's now-earnest effort to be honest with its expressed ideals.

Realizing that even recognition of these group differentials risks irresponsible headlines, attributing the score decline to more blacks' and women's and poorer youths' taking the test, we note the figures. Even if blacks' lower scores were identified solely with race (which would ignore other factors involved here, such as income levels), their increased taking of the SAT would account for no more than 4 or 5 points of the total decline in averages over the entire 14-year period. Women's larger participation could be identified with about the same amount of the drop in the Mathematical average, but with none of the decline in Verbal scores. The effect of increased test taking by students from lower-income families cannot be this specifically quantified; it is larger. The figures for all three groups overlap. There is no legitimate short answer to be found in this set of developments alone.

Another tempting shortcut to an answer that perhaps appeals to quite a few is that there are simply too many young people now going on to college. We do not find the support for that conclusion in this evidence. Should the next 15 years see the opening of still further postsecondary educational opportunities to young people who today are not finishing high school, with another attendant decline in test scores, we suspect that the reaction would again be to welcome the problem on the one hand and on the other to recommend changes in the schools in order to meet it.

The panel has looked extensively into what is in effect another dimension of this compositional shift in the SAT-taking population, involving changing college-going patterns.

Fifteen years ago, most SAT takers were students enroute to relatively prestigious and selective four-year, liberal arts colleges and universities. While the *number* of those in the SAT population going on to this type of postsecondary institutions remained virtually constant at first (until 1967), a cumulatively increasing *percentage* of test takers began to follow different courses: to colleges and universities with less selective or even open admission policies, to two-year colleges, to training with a more technical or vocational emphasis. Most of this change, though not all of it, had taken place before 1970 or 1971.

There are average score differentials of from 60 to 85 points (1) between test takers going on to four-year colleges (who average higher scores) and those who subsequently enter two-year colleges, and (2) between test takers who go directly from high school to college (averaging higher scores) and those who do not. There were substantially larger percentages of these two lower-scoring groups in the SAT population in 1972 than there had been in 1960; the increase in both cases was from about 8 percent (in 1960) to approximately 15 percent (in 1972).

There were comparable *drops* during that same period in the percentages of SAT takers asking to have their scores sent to highly selective liberal arts colleges (from 13.2 percent in 1961 to 5.6 percent in 1974) and to research universities (from 10.5

percent to 6.4 percent); and these are groups who have traditionally scored *higher* on the SAT.

These shifts in college-going patterns were more than just reflections of the compositional changes already identified. It was during the 1960s and early 1970s that two-year community colleges grew so fast and that more flexible admissions policies were adopted by many four-year colleges and universities. The SAT, originally used as an instrument for assessing the abilities of a comparatively small group of high school students to do a particular type of postsecondary work, came to be taken increasingly by a much wider variety of students with more diverse prospects in mind.

One aspect of this change in college entrance policies was a marked diminution in the percentage of students taking the SAT more than once. Since repeaters average 15 to 30 points higher the second time they take the test (whether because of the repeating or for other reasons), the significant decline in the number of repeaters has had some small effect on the score averages. We have not broken this down into pre-1970 and subsequent years.

There is a question of whether "cramming" for the SAT is a factor here. The College Board and ETS have taken the general position, based in part on studies that may now be out of date, that this type of preparation for these tests is not effective. Although we question this, we have not pursued the point, partly because this can in no event be a significant element in the score decline, and partly because the sponsoring agencies have now taken this question under active review.

- We find, therefore, that the largest part of the SAT score decline between 1963 and about 1970 was identifiable with compositional changes in the mix of the SAT-taking group—considered both in terms of the test takers coming from higher- and lower-scoring groups and in terms of their plans for going on to college. Although precise identification of the degree to which these changes explain that part of the decline is impossible, fairly careful calculation indicates that they account for between two-thirds and three-fourths of it.

Already appearing during that period, however, were indications of a broader set of influences on these scores—which were subsequently to emerge more plainly and strongly.

Pervasive Change

Neither reason nor data would suggest that at some precise time the changes in the test-taking population, which had been moving the SAT averages down, ended abruptly and that a new set of forces then erupted suddenly to continue and even accelerate the previous decline. This did not happen. But under this heading we want to develop the concept that after 1970 changes in the test-taking group became less important as a cause of the score decline and other factors in the schools and in the society at large became more significant.

By 1970, the previous increases in the percentage of young people finishing high school, going on to college, and taking the SAT had either stopped or had started to reverse. It is also clear that there has been much less shifting in the past several years

in the proportions of characteristically higher- and lower-scoring groups of SAT takers, as compared to the 1963-70 period.

A relatively complete picture of the test-taking population is available from 1972 on, from the Student Descriptive Questionnaire (SDQ), which is filled out by more than 80 percent of all SAT takers and which covers some 70 informational items. A correlation of SAT scores and SDQ answers permits a year-by-year comparison of the average scores of more than 200 groups and subgroups of test takers, along with an identification of the proportion each group represents of the total SAT-taking population. The SDQ was first used in 1971-72, but was changed so materially the following year that the 1972-73 information constitutes the earliest base for reliable comparison with subsequent years. It appears, however, from other indexes and studies that most elements in the compositional pattern reflected in the SDQ data had taken shape from one to three years before that questionnaire was fully developed. The precise time factor is not significant.

The SDQ data show a limited degree of continuing compositional change in the test-taking group after 1972. The percentage of women taking the SAT has increased from 48.7 percent in 1972, to 51.1 percent in 1977—enough to account for several points of the decline in Mathematical scores. There has also been some continuing increase in the number and percentage of test takers from minority ethnic groups, although it appears to be small.

One set of SDQ questions shows that substantially more students now than in 1973 indicate an intention to pursue "occupational" or "career" majors, with proportionately fewer apparently expecting to go on to "arts and sciences" majors; and those in the former of these groups show consistently and markedly lower average scores on the SAT (Verbal and Mathematical sections alike) than do those indicating the "arts and sciences" choices. We have looked into this situation thoroughly, taking account of a possibly significant change in the form of the SDQ question, of answers to other apparently related questions, and also of the reports regarding similar questioning done on the Project TALENT and the ACE Freshman National Norms studies. While the particular point is probably of secondary importance, it confirms the broader fact that there continues to be some "compositional" change taking place within the SAT population.

The SDQ data show only insignificant changes between 1973 and 1977 in the distribution of SAT takers among students at various high school grade percentiles. It should be noted here, and more generally as well, that the SDQ data are all based on students' own answers to these questions and may therefore reflect certain biases. There have also been changes in the form of some questions, including the one about rank in high school classes, which may affect the year-to-year comparisons.

Some of the information initially submitted to the panel suggested an aberrational drop since 1970 in the number of students scoring 600 or above on either the Verbal or the Mathematical sections of the test or on both. That "high scorer" figure, which stood at 189,300 in 1970 (among *all* SAT takers, as distinguished from a one-year cohort), had gone down by 1976 to 108,200; and this drop seemed to suggest elements of compositional or other related change.

An inordinately extended analysis of the drop in the number of these "high-

scorers" indicates, however, that the decline probably results almost entirely from the reduction in the number of students taking the SAT and from the impact at the top of the same pervasive influences that have been affecting the scores of the test takers as a whole and which we discuss in the remainder of the report. This was confirmed by a special study the panel had made of the SAT scores of some 1,500 valedictorians and salutatorians in 145 high schools during the period between 1960 and 1974. The study shows that there were no significant changes in the average scores of these top-ranking students during the early period of the overall SAT score decline, but that they dropped after 1970 on the Verbal part and after 1968 on the Mathematical part of the test at about the same rate of decline in the overall averages—making these data particularly direct evidence of the panel's "two-decline" conclusion.

In general, comparatively little—perhaps 20 to 30 percent—of the SAT score decline during the past five to seven years appears attributable to compositional shifts within the test-taking group.

There is consistent evidence, at the same time, of the emergence during this more recent period of what the panel has characterized as "pervasive" score decline—in the sense that it has shown up within virtually all categories of SAT takers.

Score averages have gone down since 1973 (with the drop apparently having started two or three years before that) among students at the higher and those at the lower percentiles of their high school classes, among students in private and in public schools, among those in large and in small high schools, among those taking "academic" and those taking "career" courses of study in high school, among test takers from high- and from low-income families, among men and women, among white students and those from minority groups, among students expecting to go on to different kinds of colleges, among those intending to take postgraduate work and those looking only toward a baccalaureate.

Although the drops in score averages have varied somewhat in degree among different groups, the obviously significant characteristic of the pattern in this second stage of the SAT decline has been the pervasiveness of the effect of the forces influencing it. The statistics themselves say nothing, at least directly, of the nature of these forces. We have set this question apart for separate consideration in Part Four.

We note, although it is too early to appraise its significance, that the SAT scores have changed less in the past two years. The 1977 high school seniors' Verbal average is 5 points below what it was in 1975, and the Mathematical average is down only 2 points. The drops during the preceding two-year period had been 11 points on the Verbal part and 9 on the Mathematical.

If the figures for all candidates are taken, which means particularly including high school juniors, the 1977 Verbal average is the same as the average last year, and the Mathematical average has gone up 1 point.

Through Other Looking Glasses

To establish further basis for determining the implications of the apparent two-stage pattern of the SAT score decline and also to check this analysis, the panel has reviewed what has been happening during recent years on other standardized academic tests. Several of these are related in one way or another to the SAT itself.

We find, in general, that the SAT score decline is significantly consistent with a broader pattern. Most—though not all—standardized test score averages, which had previously been rising gradually, turned and started down in the middle 1960s. In virtually all instances there has been a much sharper drop in the 1970s. Most of what appear at first to be inconsistencies between the records on the various sets of tests became reconcilable when their histories are analyzed on the "two-decline" basis. In significant respects, at the same time, the comparison with other test score experience provides an important reminder that declining college entrance examination scores do not in themselves warrant generalization about what is happening to the abilities at large of youth as a whole.

The other widely used college entrance examination, administered by the American College Testing (ACT) Program, shows a comparable decline since the mid-1960s, with most of the drop having taken place since 1970. The averages have dropped more on the Mathematics section of the ACT than on the English section. That test also includes a Natural Science component, on which there has been no decline, and one in Social Science, which shows the largest drop. Women have consistently scored lower than men on the ACT Mathematics test but higher on the English component.

American College Testing Program representatives advise the panel that the ACT composite score average will be slightly higher for 1977 than it was last year. Taken with the current experience on the SAT scores, this affords an interesting basis for conjecture as to whether what is involved here is a pause or a possible turning point.

Score averages on tests taken by high school seniors as a whole, as distinguished from those taken only by students going on to college, remained virtually level until about 1970; but where more recent reports are available (as, for example, on the Iowa Tests of Educational Development and the Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test) they show declines in the last five years roughly paralleling those on the SAT and the ACT.

Score declines have been largest at the 12th-grade level and somewhat less at each successively lower grade, with the averages at grades 1 to 4 remaining relatively constant. The panel has not been in a position to analyze the extent to which this reflects various possible explanations: decreasing school system effectiveness at the upper elementary and secondary levels, increasing school retention rates, changing motivational factors, possibly diminishing relevance of some of the standardized tests to what is being taught.

We have given particular attention to the results of two other sets of examinations sponsored and administered by the College Board and ETS. One of these is the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test/National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test, a shorter version of the SAT taken annually by over a million high school students, most of them in their junior year. (The test has also been used since 1971-72 by its cospon-

sor, the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, as a qualifying test.)

For reasons and with implications that are only partially clear, the PSAT/NMSQT scores followed a different pattern than did those on the SAT between 1963 and 1973. The declines were substantially smaller. Furthermore, when the PSAT/NMSQT was given in 1960, again in 1966, and once more in 1974, to national samples of 11th graders as a whole (not being limited, therefore, to students probably college bound), these "norming studies" showed a substantial stability in averages on both the Verbal and Mathematical sections over the entire 14-year period.

An accounting of the complex variety of factors that emerged in the panel's examination of this difference between the SAT and PSAT/NMSQT patterns would burden this report unduly. We find adequate explanation for most of the difference but not for all of it. There may be support here for the view of some analysts that there has been more change taking place at the 12th- than at the 11th-grade level. What emerges as most significant, however, is that since 1973, both the Verbal and the Mathematical score averages on the PSAT/NMSQT have dropped in almost exact parallels to the declines on the SAT. So here again, the "two decline" pattern shows up, though with a perhaps noteworthy difference in timing.

There has been a probably significant difference in the pattern of scores on the Achievement Tests, covering 14 different subject-matter areas, which some high school juniors and seniors take in conjunction with the SAT. Some colleges and universities require applicants for admission to take certain of these tests; others recommend it. Students may themselves choose to take various of the Achievement Tests and to have the scores on them transmitted along with their SAT score. Each of two of these tests (in English Composition and Mathematics Level I) is taken by more than 175,000 students (high school juniors and seniors) each year; each of eight others (American History and Social Studies, French, Spanish, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics Level II, and Literature) is taken by between 15,000 and 75,000 students; fewer than 10,000 students take the German, Hebrew, Latin, Russian, and European History tests. Use of the Achievement Tests has declined sharply in the past four or five years. Students taking them are characteristically of higher-than-average ability.

Although the group taking Achievement Tests is a special and relatively small one, several elements in the picture nevertheless appear important. There have been relatively small declines in the past 10 years on four of the more widely used Achievement Tests (American History and Social Studies, Mathematics I and II, and Literature) and *increases* on the six others (English Composition, French, Spanish, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics), during what was the period of most of the decline on the SAT scores themselves.

When students' scores on the Achievement Tests are compared with their scores on the SAT, it is apparent that in those six Achievement Test groups for which scores on the Achievement Tests went up between 1967 and 1976, the students' SAT-Verbal score averages went down. This was not true, however, as far as the SAT-Mathematical scores were concerned; all six groups showing increases in Achievement Test score averages also showed increases over the nine-year period in SAT-Mathematical averages.

We have not been able to analyze fully the possible implications of this apparent divergence between aptitude and achievement test score patterns. Perhaps part of the explanation is that the students taking the Achievement Tests are particularly highly motivated, although this does not explain the different patterns of their performance on the Verbal and Mathematical sections of the SAT. It is conceivably important that the College Board and ETS make much larger use of outside committees in connection with the Achievement Tests than with the SAT; the counsel sought is in the one case from experts in the particular disciplines, in the other more from psychometricians and psychologists. There are possibly clues here to significant questions regarding the changing "relevance" of one set of tests or another. This body of data warrants further analysis by the Board and ETS.

A mixed pattern of developments emerges in the scores on tests that college students take enroute to postgraduate study. The ETS Graduate Record Examinations averages (on the Verbal and Quantitative sections of that test) have declined at about the same rate since 1967 as have the SAT-Verbal and Mathematical averages, with almost half the drop concentrated in 1969-70. There is a similar pattern on the Graduate Management Admission Test. The Law School Admission Test and the Medical College Admission Test show increases, however, apparently reflecting primarily the increasing competition for graduate school admission in these two areas.

Only preliminary results are available so far from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), a project that will eventually provide tests at four-year intervals of national samples of individuals at various age levels (9, 13, 17, and 26-35) in 10 different curricular areas, with a considerable amount of accompanying biographical data being supplied by the test takers. Of the four banks of NAEP tests completed so far, three are in the Reading and Writing areas. They show results differing considerably from those on most other standardized examinations. The NAEP tests in Reading Performance and in Writing Mechanics show relatively slight declines in the averages for the 17-year-old group between 1969-70 and 1973, but the test in Functional Literacy and Basic Reading Performance shows a small *increase*—particularly among the groups of students (blacks, for example, and children from lower socioeconomic families) who scored lowest on the first round of tests. NAEP Reading Performance and Writing Mechanics tests given to the 9-year-old and 13-year-old groups show the usual pattern of lesser declines (or even increases) at the lower age levels.

Although it is proposed to extend the NAEP testing project eventually to include not only enrolled students but those out of school (in the 17 and 26-35-year-old groups), very little has yet been done. So little is known about the performance of age groups as a whole on tests of this kind, except for the familiar evidence of the results, while the military draft was in effect, of the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT). The average on that preinduction test went up sharply between the mid-1960s and the early 1970s. There are, however, so many possible explanations of this rise, which came during the period when most tests of *students in school* were showing decline in this age group, that comparative analysis is exceedingly difficult. There are no reliable comprehensive measures yet of the comparative competence of today's youth with yesterday's. It could occur at the same time (1) that a larger percentage of

young people going on to college would be less well equipped for what college has traditionally required, while (2) the general ability level of youth as a whole increased.

■ In summary, the evidence regarding the two stages or elements of the SAT score decline is illuminated by the data regarding what has been happening on other standardized academic tests.

Although the drop in the SAT averages (especially the Verbal scores) has been larger than that on any of the other widely used examinations, it is consistent with a general pattern of decline found in other test scores, which started to develop in the mid-1960s and has persisted ever since.

A comparative analysis of these various test score records confirms, at the same time, the necessity of recognizing clearly the dual developments this pattern reflects. First, a larger percentage of young people are staying in school through the 12th grade with the consequence that there has been a lowering of the *averages* on examinations taken previously by more select groups. Second, it has emerged as a major factor in the more recent stages of these test score patterns that there are broader influences operating to reduce young people's developed ability levels, at least at the upper high school level.

The panel has identified, with relatively firm statistical basis, roughly two-thirds to three-fourths of the decline between 1963 and about 1970 as resulting from "compositional" changes in the SAT-taking population. As nearly as we can tell, though the statistics are less helpful here, only about a quarter of the subsequent decline is traceable to continuing compositional change, with the remaining three quarters apparently resulting from the impact of more "pervasive" forces.

We turn now to what analysis is possible of the nature of this second set of influences.

Part Four. Circumstantial Evidence

SEARCHING for the causes of the SAT score decline over the past six or seven years is essentially an exercise in conjecture. So much has happened that may have affected this record that there is no way of telling what did; the only evidence is circumstantial, leaving it hard to distinguish cause from coincidence. Most of the 50 or so theories brought to the panel's attention have in common only three assumptions; first, that since the problem has been reduced to a single statistic – the drop in these averages – there must be a single answer; second, that what has happened is in every respect bad; and third, that whatever caused it is somebody else's fault.

Although the panel's only certain conclusion is that we are dealing here with a virtually seamless web of causal connections, the apparently most critical elements emerge more clearly in looking first at some developments in the schools, then at several major societal changes, and finally at the murky but probably vital area of youths' motivations.

In the Schools

While some of the observable changes in formal education during the past 20 to 25 years probably reflect evolving educational philosophy, our impression is that most of them are traceable in larger degree to the vast expansion and extension of educational opportunity in the 1950s and 1960s. The *direct* effects of "compositional" change on the SAT score averages were concentrated in the period before 1970, but this leaves the question of how much fallout effect those changes have had since that time. There is the additional question of the relationship between what has been happening in the schools and what has taken place in learning's broader societal context. Looking for causes of the SAT score decline requires going beyond the evidence of revisions in traditional educational practices to the reasons these revisions have been made.

Courses of Study

A good deal of attention has been focused on the fact that fewer "basic" courses are now being required of all students in high school, with many more "electives" being introduced into the curriculum. This is asserted to be particularly true in the English and verbal skills area, and the evidence suggests that it is.

Using nationwide data assembled by the National Center for Education Statistics, Harnischfeger and Wiley report that in one recent two-year period (1971 to 1973) English enrollments in grades 7 through 12 dropped almost 11 percent, about 50

percent in Advanced English. This drop probably involves less those students who will be taking the SAT than it does the high school student population as a whole; the Student Descriptive Questionnaire shows about 90 percent of the SAT takers reporting consistently from year to year that they have taken four "English" courses. Yet the question remains as to what kinds of courses these are.

A study by the Massachusetts Department of Education combines a survey of the development of "elective" courses in Massachusetts high schools between 1971 and 1976 with an analysis of the SAT scores in 43 of these schools—divided into three groups on the basis of how their students' SAT averages compare (in terms of change between 1971 and 1976) with the national SAT averages.

During the five-year period there were increases of over 50 percent in the number of English/Language Arts courses offered (at least as indicated by course titles) in the 43 Massachusetts high schools; the two most commonly added were Science Fiction and Radio/Television/Film. No significant correlation emerges between the number of electives added by a particular high school and the experience of students from that school on the SAT. Yet when the record of student enrollments in the two commonest "specialty" courses is analyzed, it develops with significant consistency that those schools that showed increases in these enrollments between 1971 and 1976 also showed larger than normal declines in SAT scores; and where the specialty course enrollments went down or stayed about the same, there were not substantial SAT score declines. Another Massachusetts study shows that between 1968 and 1973 over a quarter of all high schools in that State added courses in Film Making; the number offering 11th-grade English and World History courses went down.

There have been similar developments in other states. In California, for example, it is reported that "enrollment in basic English courses fell 19 percent between 1971-72 and 1974-75 and in English Composition classes it plummeted 77 percent. . . . Enrollment in contemporary literature electives (Children's Theater, Mystery and Detective Story, Executive English) has nearly doubled."

While the panel's net conclusion is that there is almost certainly some causal relationship between the shift in the high schools from courses in the traditional disciplines to newer electives and the decline in SAT-Verbal scores, we warn against any oversimplistic interpretation of this finding.

A careful probing of the evidence indicates that the new electives are being taken less by students who are going on to college (and will therefore take the SAT) than by those who are not. It will have to be determined whether the needs and interests and developed competencies *of those taking these electives* are better met by a course, for example, in Radio/Television/Film or an English IV course in the refinements of the language. Nor has it been established that even with respect to SAT takers these elective courses contribute *by their nature* less to the "aptitudes" the SAT supposedly measures—distinguishing this, to the extent such a distinction is possible, from "achievement." In our view, "returning to the basics" would be wrong unless it included full reappraisal of what the right basics are—taking account of childrens' different rates and modes of learning and their different interests and plans for the future. The need is not to revert to uniform drills and exercises commended only by a traditional pedagogy, but to move ahead to a larger emphasis on the fundamentals of learning

that can be identified as strengthening the base on which all students can build.

Our firmest conclusion is that the critical factors in the relationship between curricular change and the SAT scores are (1) that less thoughtful and critical reading is now being demanded and done, and (2) that careful writing has apparently about gone out of style. So we do not identify the score decline narrowly with reduced high school offerings of whatever used to be included in Advanced English courses. There is as much opportunity, and sometimes more incentive, for worthwhile reading and responsible writing in subject-matter areas of particular student interest.

We can't prove that learning how to write is related to a decline in scores on a test that requires no writing. Yet in our judgment this may be a significant factor. We suspect strongly that *expressing* something clearly and correctly—especially in writing—is thinking's sternest discipline. A recent study by National Assessment of Educational Progress of the number of writing assignments given a group of 11th-grade students shows that during a six-week period more than half of them were asked to write three or fewer papers, 12 percent only one, 13 percent none.

It seems clear that increasing reliance in colleges and high schools on tests requiring only the putting of X's in boxes contributes to juvenile writing delinquency. Students learn what they think they need to know. There is more than irony in the report of teachers, who used to train students to write, now advising them about the advantage in using soft-tip pens and pencils so these boxes can be filled in more quickly.

We applaud the recently announced reintroduction this year, at the December test administration only, of a written essay as part of the College Board's English Composition Achievement Test.

Our strong conviction is that concern about declining SAT-Verbal scores can profitably be concentrated on seeing to it that young people do more reading that enhances vocabulary and enlarges knowledge and experience, and more writing that makes fledgling ideas test and strengthen their wings.

It has been pressed strongly on the panel that there is a related development in the sharp decline in enrollments in high school foreign language courses, ancient and modern. Such courses, it is suggested, increase the knowledge and understanding of the English language—a development reflected in performance on the Verbal part of the SAT.

A clear parallel unquestionably shows up between students' SAT-Verbal scores and the number of foreign language courses they have taken in high school. Those who report having taken four or more such courses (about 10 percent of the test takers) average more than 100 points higher than those (about 8 percent) reporting no work in foreign language; and the averages rise progressively with the number of courses taken.

Is this, though, a *causal* relationship? Does foreign language training improve verbal ability or do students with high verbal ability take more foreign language? Is there anything here except confirmation that abler and more highly motivated students are more likely than others to take some foreign language course? It turns out that the foreign language students do as much better than others on the Mathematical part of the SAT as they do on the Verbal. The Student Descriptive Questionnaire reports show no reduction since 1973 in the amount of high school foreign

language being taken *by students who also take the SAT*. Furthermore, although students who have taken foreign language continue to average higher SAT scores, the *decline* in the averages over the past four years has been at least as large as the decline among students with no foreign language exposure.

The panel may have given too little consideration to the difference between the score decline patterns on the Verbal and the Mathematical sections of the SAT. Most of the deviation had developed before 1963; the Verbal score average was at that time already 24 points below the Mathematical average. The two averages dropped in virtual parallel between 1964 and 1970. This gap has widened significantly, however, during the later stage of the SAT decline, until it is now 41 points. At one large and prestigious Midwestern university the median SAT-Verbal score of entering first-year students dropped by 60 points (from 580 to 520) between 1970 and 1976, while the Mathematical median score went down only 20 points (from 620 to 600)—with the high school grade averages of the entering classes remaining at a virtually constant level.

There may well be clues in this difference to some of the causal elements in the general score decline.

It is perhaps relevant that there has not been the proliferation of electives in high school Mathematics that has been characteristic of the verbal skills area. While Massachusetts high schools were increasing their course offerings in English by 50 percent (between 1971 and 1976) there was virtually no increase in the number of Mathematics courses being offered. Student enrollments in high school Mathematics courses have gone down some, but markedly less than enrollments in English courses.

We suspect, too, that there is more evidence here of the importance to SAT-Verbal scores of the diminishing emphasis on reading and writing, for these skills play much less part in mathematics.

The implications of the difference in scores on the two parts of the SAT may go considerably beyond this. We have conjectured that mathematics is essentially school-based learning, while verbal skills are more influenced by experience in the home.

Why, referring back to the point covered earlier, do students taking the College Board Achievement Tests, and maintaining previous scoring levels on them, show declining SAT-Verbal averages but stable or even increasing SAT-Mathematical averages?

The realization that the decline in SAT-Mathematical averages has been at about the same rate as the decline on most other standardized academic tests, while the SAT-Verbal decline has been substantially larger than any of the others, obviously raises the question—though we imply nothing regarding an answer—of whether there is something here that is peculiar to the Verbal part of the test.

Not having gone into the matter of the difference between these two score patterns as fully as hindsight suggests might have been advisable, we commend further consideration and investigation by the College Board and ETS.

Learning Standards

There have unquestionably been changes over the past 10 to 15 years in the standards to which students at all levels of education are held. Absenteeism formerly con-

sidered intolerable is now condoned. An "A" or "B" means a good deal less than it used to. Promotion from one grade to another has become almost automatic. Homework has apparently been cut about in half. Open admissions colleges are available; if entering students don't know how to read and write and do arithmetic, "remediation" is available.

There can be little doubt, despite a dearth of direct data, that these changes in standards are reflected in the decline in SAT score averages. The harder questions are about the reasons behind these changes, and about how to meet the problems presented here without compromising some interests and values and principles that the college entrance examinations do not pretend to take into account.

Several of these developments warrant particular attention.

Although the daily attendance and absenteeism data are infected by administrative chagrin attending their reporting, the available figures reveal a seriously worsening situation in the high schools during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Average daily attendance rates went down as the school retention rates went up. A 1975 report by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals identified absenteeism as "the most perplexing student problem. . . ." Absenteeism rates above 15 percent became common and 20 to 25 percent not unusual. There has apparently been some recent improvement in this situation.

Excessive student absenteeism has a doubly corrosive effect: on the absentee and on the class as a whole, when so many of those present don't know what was covered yesterday that the teacher repeats the lesson in an attempt to bring everybody up to pace.

The schools are both contributing cause and victim of this phenomenon. To the extent school is a place youngsters flee because they find themselves diminished or bored or both, the need is plainly for internal reform. Yet without the right alliance with home and community the school's effectiveness is limited. We note the probable need here for improved guidance and attendance services—which cost money few school budgets provide for this purpose.

"Grade inflation" is perhaps most commonly pointed to as a reflection of declining educational standards. An American College Testing Program study shows an increase, between 1962-65 and 1974-75, of 25 percent in the proportion of "A" and "B" grades reported by college-bound seniors in high school English courses. Other reports reveal a comparable pattern throughout both secondary and postsecondary education.

Yet we question the significance of grade inflation *as such* so far as the decline in college entrance examination scores is concerned. While the Student Descriptive Questionnaire data clearly confirm the fact that more students are now getting A's and B's than used to be the case, the distribution of SAT takers among the various *percentiles* on high school grade records apparently has not changed substantially.

The apparently more significant development involves the increasing acceptance of the notion that advancement from one grade level to another is an entitlement rather than something to be earned—or denied. It is unlikely that very many students who are promoted when their work doesn't warrant it will ever take the college entrance examinations. Yet here again, the necessary assumption is that other students'

education suffers from teachers' having to gear their instruction to classes including too many who have fallen badly behind the rest.

The panel considers this, however, a hard problem with no easy answer. Automatic promotion hasn't developed because either teachers or principals like the idea. They don't. They know, however, the dubious value there is in "holding a student back"—so far as both that student and the rest of the class are concerned.

Now there is a nationwide movement, citing what has happened on the SAT and other comparable tests to support it, toward conditioning students' promotion at various grade levels on their achievement of prescribed scores on standardized tests. Reports, principally in the press, are that this is having a salutary effect. Yet dependence on rigid cutting points on test scores for this purpose makes no more sense than it does for college admissions. Perhaps something of this kind is valuable in reestablishing a commitment among teachers, students, parents, and community to the ideal of educational excellence. We suspect, however, that the promotion of students from one grade level to the next ought to be ultimately a matter of case-by-case decision, taking account of each student's social and psychological development as well as his or her intellectual growth and permitting flexible arrangements for moving ahead, for example, in certain subject-matter areas but not in others.

We conclude, in short, that what is reflected in the practice of automatic promotions has indeed been one of the causes of the SAT score decline, but we question an equally "automatic" answer that such promotion should depend entirely on scores on still other standardized tests.

The panel has considered, too, the relatively clear evidence (though none of it has been quantified) of reduced assignments of homework. We find this another reflection of the changing standards of elementary and secondary education, which seems to us related to the SAT score decline. There is no way of determining whether the reason for the reduction in homework was that teachers or that parents decided it was less important. We assume that television is a factor here, and we come to that problem shortly.

Trying to probe beyond these more obvious reflections of changed educational standards, the panel commissioned a preliminary investigation of the possible relationship between the SAT score decline and whatever changes there may have been in the textbooks being used at various primary, elementary, and secondary levels. Taking the Verbal score averages for SAT takers in six cohorts (1947, 1955, 1962, 1967, 1972, and 1975) as a starting point, an analysis was made of the Reading and History textbooks and related materials that were in commonest use at the 1st, 6th, and 11th-grade levels when these various SAT cohorts were getting their preparatory education. The materials were compared on the basis of several recognized measures of "readability," "difficulty," and "challenge."

Although this study proved inconclusive with respect to establishing direct correlations between the changing nature of the teaching materials and subsequent SAT scores, several of its broader findings are illuminating. By the measures adopted in the study, current 11th-grade texts are generally at what is considered a 9th-to-10th-grade level. The significance of this in relationship to the SAT experience is highlighted by the further finding that the reading passages and questions on the Verbal

part of the SAT are—by these same measures—on an 11th-to-12th-grade and in some cases at a 13th-to-15th-grade level of readability.

The study develops in statistical form the fact that a constantly increasing percentage of textbook space is taken up by pictures, wider margins, shorter words and sentences and paragraphs; the amount of exposition is decreasing, the amount of narrative going up. It also reports statistically on the extent (as indicated in the textbooks and related teacher materials) to which student exercises are being reduced to an "objective answer" basis, meaning that students will find less reason to learn to write: "generally, the assignments in the Reading, History, and Literature textbooks [ask] only for underlining, circling and filling in of single words." Samples of good writing are accompanied in one text by the editor's (or publisher's) reassuring note to the students that while the selections "should be read and appreciated, they [are] not to be considered examples of writing that students should expect to attain themselves."

The study confirms what we know from the reports of textbook writers enjoined by publishers to "make it simple" and from the echoing reactions of better students that what they are reading at school is "simpler stuff than we read in the newspapers."

Recognizing that textbooks are not in themselves measures of good or bad teaching, or of how hard or easy a course is made, or of how much writing will be required, we nevertheless have a dual reaction to the reported changes in the nature of teaching materials. If textbooks are being written down simply in response to somebody's persuasion that students at various grade levels don't have what they used to have, this is greasing the toboggan—and is *itself* a cause of the SAT score decline. If, on the other hand, these changes reflect—as we suspect they do—an attempt to adapt education to the needs of *all* students, they represent an effort that reflects an authentic purpose but yields negative side effects by shortchanging some students.

The American education system is unique in its variety and its capacity to be useful to an extremely broad constituency, in which those who are going to take the SAT are a minority. We do not read the SAT score decline as an instruction that education in this country must or should be more rigid, more selective, more rejective, more uniform. Instead, the instruction is that education, especially secondary education, must become still more diversified, more varied—but without being watered down.

So in general we find that there *has* been a lowering of educational standards and that this *is* a factor in the decline in SAT scores. We conclude at the same time that the correction of the various elements in this situation requires the collaboration of teachers, students, parents, and the broader community in the establishment of standards that can be truly considered higher only as they recognize youths' essential diversity.

Staff and Facilities

The composition of the panel makes it poor critic or judge of the extent to which the decline in SAT scores may reflect simply teacher incompetence and administrative ineffectiveness, or, on the other hand, inadequate provision of educational facilities.

The sudden influx of students into the elementary and secondary schools during the 1960s and early 1970s resulted in a sharp increase in the demand for teachers and a considerable reliance on substitute teachers. The average years-of-experience fig-

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ure for elementary school teachers was 13.3 in 1961; it dropped by 1966 to 10 years; then moved down in 1971 to about 8 years.

On the other hand, teachers' educational levels have been rising for the past 30 years.

Reported pupil-teacher ratios have been going down gradually but steadily in both elementary and secondary schools during the entire period relevant to the score decline: from 29.6 pupils per teacher at the elementary level in 1956 (for the country as a whole) to 23 per teacher in 1974; and from 21.2 to 19 students per teacher in the secondary schools. These figures are misleading in their lumping together of full-time classroom teachers and auxiliary personnel; the nationwide averages conceal the fact that in a good many school systems few teachers ever meet classes with fewer than 30 students in them. Although we do recognize that the compositional changes that have occurred place added burdens on teachers and argue for reconsideration of their responsibilities in order to achieve better writing and other desirable ends, it would be a mistake to attribute the SAT score decline to teacher overload.

Though there are no reliable objective measures of administrative competence, elementary and secondary school principals and superintendents have become increasingly men and women with both teaching experience and special training as administrators. Many of them now are political executives in the better sense of the term.

Teaching and administrative salaries have been increasing in comparative terms throughout this period and the general financial support base for education has been substantially expanded. It is clearly arguable that only part of the price tag on *real* equality of educational opportunity has yet been paid. We suspect that the inequitable distribution of funds for schools may be related to the problems of standards and quality, but we cannot claim to have investigated the matter. Yet to attribute the SAT score decline to inadequate financial support of education would both abuse the facts and worsen the ironical truth that this decline has already prejudiced the probably legitimate case for increasing this support.

These statistical facts—regarding teachers' years of experience and training, student-teacher ratios, salary levels, and the like—obviously involve, however, only superficial aspects of the issue that is now becoming the center of national debate regarding what to do about the quality of education. Despite increasing recognition of the role of the community and the family in learning's processes, attention is being centered on the qualification of teachers.

Over half the state legislatures have either enacted or are considering bills to condition the hiring of elementary and secondary teachers on their achieving statutorily prescribed grades on standardized teacher examinations. The legislative debates invariably invoke the decline of student scores on the SAT and other comparable examinations as support for these bills; the decline is introduced as evidence in litigation regarding the legality of this legislation.

The panel recognizes and in no sense minimizes the role of teachers and school administrators in what has happened here. Our best judgment is that their responsibility centers in their having made more concessions because of changing circumstances and demands—by tolerating excessive absenteeism, for example, and by themselves credentialing incompetence, by adopting less-demanding textbooks, by

condoning little reading and less writing—than has been good for anybody involved. But this becomes a hard question of how much choice they have had, and of how the demands of a changing student clientele are best met.

We also recognize that there are compositional changes taking place in the teaching profession, involving the elimination of racial discrimination, that parallel in some respects the compositional changes among high school juniors and seniors and students going on to college. We see as much danger in compromising standards in the one case as in the other. Our increased understanding of the workings of standardized student examinations in such situations does not, however, commend exclusive reliance on the use of comparable examinations for teachers. Whatever may be wrong with teachers today is too important to be left to standardized examinations alone.

The Broader Learning Context

Most of us, doing poorly on a test, go through two stages in trying to figure out why it happened. With the SAT score decline there are four stages. Suspicious first of the test, next of the schools, then of the younger generation, we turn finally to look in the mirror. But the reflection is cloudy, our vision of ourselves only partly clear.

Most people accept the propositions that the population wave that engulfed the schools was of national making, that school absenteeism begins at home and corridor crime in the streets, that ill-considered promotions from one grade to the next trace at least as much to parental and community pressure or indifference as to principals' taking the easy way out. Yet there is virtually no statistical evidence of any *causal* connections between societal developments and SAT scores. There are delicate matters involved here—such as changes in the American family, the advent of television, and an embarrassing decade in American history.

Parents as Teachers

James S. Coleman, Christopher Jencks, and others have now established the relationship of various "family background variables" to educational outcomes, and we have taken account in Part Three of the unquestionable influence of some of these variables—socioeconomic status, for example—on SAT score averages during the period of changing composition of the test-taking population. But there is more here than that.

The period preceding and including the decline of the SAT scores has also been a period of marked change in the family.

Only one aspect of this change, involving family size, has been analyzed in terms of its possible relationship to college entrance examination scores. Several studies indicate that first-born children average higher scores on these tests than their siblings do and that the averages decline with each succeeding birth. This has been correlated with the decreasing score averages during the period when the post-World War II population wave affected this situation. Although the effect of multiple variables may be relevant, we find these research findings credible as far as they go.

More penetrating investigation of other possible causal factors in this situation has been handicapped by social sensitivity; the Student Descriptive Questionnaire asks

SAT takers how many siblings there are at home, but not how many parents. So research is only now beginning into the questions of what effect there may be on academic test scores as a consequence of broken homes, of there being one parent (or none) present instead of two, of the mother's working outside the home either by necessity or by choice, or of the father's allocation (again by either necessity or choice) of his time and interests.

We do know that in 1960 some 89 percent of all children under 18 in this country were living with both parents, and that this figure has dropped now to 80 percent. The number of children in other situations—living with one parent or none—is increasing at the rate of over 300,000 each year.

We know that the number of children from divorced families has doubled in the past 10 years, and that desertion rates are increasing.

We know that one obvious implication of women's exercising the now recognized right to equal employment opportunity is that they will be spending more time outside the home. The figures, which may be enemy to the truth because they tell only part of it, are that more than half of all women with children of school age (and 40 percent of those with children under 6) are now holding either full-time or part-time outside jobs; and these figures are rising rapidly.

What we *do not* know is what the relationship of these developments to children's learning may be—either under present circumstance or when appropriate adjustments are made to accommodate to a changing set of family life styles. The question usually left out is what the learning implications of alternative situations would have been in the particular case involved. The tendency is to look too much at the "status variables" in the picture, because they can be measured, and too little at the "learning process variables" that actually determine what kind of education takes place in any home as well as in any classroom.

In the panel's view, nevertheless, the matter of home learning is of critical importance in any attempt to identify the causes of the decline in academic test score averages. Although the key factors have not been identified—or even whether they involve the nature and amount of communication and of reading that goes on in the home, or the balance between concentration and distraction, or the mysteries of motivation and of self-image—there is probably more than coincidence between the decline in the SAT scores and the drop in the number of children living in two-parent homes.

Perhaps there is another related factor here. If there have been negative effects from changes in parents' functioning as teachers, they are probably paralleled by the effects of a weakening in traditional relationships between teachers at home and teachers at school. Most parents, regardless of the particular family situation, want to help in this teaching business as much as they can, but a lot of them feel they no longer know how. Changes in educational practice, as well as changes in family life styles, have probably contributed to a strain on the teacher–parent relationship, which may have had more effect than anything either partner has done alone. If this is true, as we suspect but cannot prove, it is an encouraging report from school book publishers that one of the largest new demands (next to the call for more basics-oriented and career-oriented materials) is for texts and teaching guides aimed directly at re-en-

listing parent participation.

It is perhaps equally important to recognize that if little is known about the impact on achievement of changing family configurations and circumstance, still less is understood about the effects of the changing state of childhood and youth itself. There has been a steady lengthening of the period during which the family either cares for or seeks surrogate care for its younger members and exercises some form of jurisdiction over them. At the same time, there has been perceptible acceleration of young people's physical and sexual, and probably intellectual, maturation.

Are these opposing trends creating within youth, and between them and adults, tensions that manifest themselves in school in the forms of rebellious behavior and underachievement? The 17-year-old of 1977 is not the same in body or in mind as the 17-year-old of 1947 was. It can hardly be coincidence that problems of discipline and absenteeism appear at a time when changing life styles and values in adult society, earlier physical maturity, higher mobility, drugs, and the pill are all interacting.

None of this is translatable in the present state of the evidence into point declines on college entrance test score averages. Yet if the question is why those scores have been going down, few would respond without recognizing that part of the answer is almost certainly hidden in these gaps in present knowledge—about the effects of change on the whole meaning of family and youth.

Television – Test of the Modern World

By age 16 most children have spent between 10,000 and 15,000 hours watching television, more time than they have spent in school. When they reach the 1st grade, their average watching time is between 20 and 35 hours a week; this usually peaks at about age 12. The average time per child per day increased by about an hour between 1960 and 1970. Children are doing what their parents are; television now occupies about 40 percent of Americans' leisure time.

Is television a cause of the SAT score decline? Yes, we think it is. This cannot be proved, and we don't know *how much* a factor it is, By 1965, when scores started dropping, there were already television sets in 95 percent of all American homes; so ordinary research methods won't work here, for there are no non-television-watching control groups to use for comparison. Neither the difficulty of proof nor the impossibility of measurement, however, warrants diluting the answer. Television has become surrogate parent, substitute teacher.

What direct research there is on correlations between television watching and academic test scores is in fact entirely inconclusive. One earlier study comparing a television-watching Canadian town with another that was still at the radio-listening stage found T.V. Town's children had advanced vocabularies in the 1st grade, but that this advantage had disappeared by the 6th grade; there were no observable differences in academic achievement in grades 6 through 10. A 1954 series of studies of children in grades 3 through 6 in Evanston, Illinois, found that children in the lowest quarter of academic achievement averaged six hours more television viewing per week than those in the top quarter; but these studies took no account of other variables. In a sophisticated study conducted in Tokyo in 1970, an apparently significant correlation emerged at first between academic achievement scores and the

test takers' reports of the amount of television they had been watching (the more television the lower the scores); but when controls were introduced for such variables as intelligence, creativity, and adaptability the separate significance of television watching disappeared.

So the panel's conclusions here must be plainly identified as essentially subjective.

We suspect that the three or four widely known and generally respected educational television programs designed for younger children are giving them a faster start with their letters and numbers. This may be at least one reason standardized tests show increases rather than declines in recent years at the first several grade levels.

So far as the scores on college entrance examinations are concerned, however, we are impressed and persuaded by two interrelated considerations. One of these involves the assumption that spending 10,000 to 15,000 hours on television's fare means a significant reduction in time, some of which would otherwise have gone into the development of the skills and aptitudes measured on college entrance examinations. An unquestionably considerable amount of time at the set used to go into homework and into reading and writing. To call television a thief of time is in a sense to beg the issue. Yet if developing the capacities that are measured by the SAT is taken as a value, the only question is whether television's larceny is petty or grand.

Another dimension of this first consideration involves the hypothesis that part of television's impact on education is that it raises children's expectation levels so that they are then discouraged by the comparative blandness of what they find when they open a book or encounter the next morning in the classroom. A member of the panel who is a teacher makes the point: "Sometimes I feel I'm competing with television stars who can sing and dance while they add and subtract and do the alphabet. I can't!"

The second set of considerations seem to us perhaps more important for what they suggest about the possible reach of television's implications than for anything specific. We have considered the apparently supportable working hypothesis that reading a line of script or type (as on a college entrance examination or in a textbook) involves a "linear, verbal, logical" function, which is performed in the left hemisphere of the brain, while watching something such as a television screen involves a "simultaneous, visual, affective" function—performed in the brain's right hemisphere.

Mindful of the dangers of a little learning, we simply note some of the questions those with larger but still very incomplete knowledge are also asking—without yet knowing the answers. Could this much (10,000 to 15,000 hours) functioning of one area of the brain alter the neural mechanisms of the mind—with *possible* effect on the handling of verbal materials? When so much more of children's time now goes into developing what they need for processing information in the visual mode (as in television) instead of the reading mode, would this result in lowered performance on the SAT test of verbal aptitude?

Could there be a suggestion here of a reason for larger declines on the Verbal part of the SAT than on the Mathematical part—in the possibility that geometry, for example, involves more a visual than a linear function, that mathematical problem solution is more simultaneous and holistic than linear, that the sense of algebraic equa-

tions comes from a grasp of the whole equation rather than from a linear view of one symbol following another?

is part of the reason children's academic test scores are staying at previous levels or are increasing in the lower grades, but not in the higher, that there are closer similarities between television and the teaching methods used in the first few grades?

We know only that we stand on a frontier of knowledge that probably leads to partial answers to the questions we are considering, and that television's effects may in fact be so much broader than this one suggestion of them as to mock its unimportance.

The prospect is one of competing promise and threat. Traditional education and television are currently out of kilter, and the stakes in correcting this quickly seem to us higher than is generally realized. Yet if television's abuses have made it a "vast wasteland," its potential is of becoming learning's most fertile grove. We see this only as a question of when the family and the community will decide, as they have in the case of the schools, what kind of education they want this master but unprincipled teacher to give their younger members.

"I believe television is going to be the test of the modern world and that in this new opportunity to see beyond the range of our vision, we shall discover either a new and unbearable disturbance of the general peace or a saving radiance in the sky." This was E. B. White; the date was 1938. On that test, too, the scores have been declining.

A Decade of Distraction

When democracy thrives, Bernard Murchland points out, so does education, and when democracy is in crisis, so is education. Whatever application this truism may have to the SAT score decline is best suggested quickly and let go at that, for the facts are as obvious as the proof of any causal relationship is impossible.

The SAT scores dropped more sharply between 1972 and 1975 than during any other period. Most of the score decline on the ACT also came after 1970. It is hard to understand the suddenness and concentration of these changes—except for the realization that the students entering college during that period had gone through five or six years of national disillusionment, especially for young people, virtually unparalleled in American history.

It is arguable that the military draft, with its exemption of students, had a direct effect on the SAT score average along the course of its decline. Although our attempted analysis of this particular possibility leaves it in question, we suspect that there was a related but broader set of influences here. There is simply no way of knowing how much the trauma, between 1967 and 1975, of coincident divisive war (which youth had to fight), political assassination (of their particular heroes), burning cities, and the corruption of national leadership affected the motivations of the young people of that period—and whether there was consequent effect on their college entrance examination scores.

That concatenation of sad events unquestionably undermined respect for established institutions and processes, and this was manifested most overtly by young people. Because they were closest to education's institutions and processes, these were the focus of their protest. It was a time of extraordinary distraction, when it would have

been hard for students to put the best that was in them into getting high marks on a college entrance examination.

This probably made quite a difference.

Motivation

The further the panel has gone into various aspects of this general question of reasons for the score decline, the more the matter of "motivation" has come up in varying forms relating not only to the taking of the college entrance examinations themselves but to virtually all aspects of the learning process.

A study commissioned by the panel, summarizing research in the area of achievement motivation, warns of the complexity of the subject and the difficulties of applying what is known about it to the limited information available to us. Yet we sense the motivational implications of a good many of the points that have been considered in other contexts.

It seems plausible speculation that as opportunities for getting into college have widened there may have been less concentration of student efforts on preparing for college entrance examinations. This would be in no way inconsistent with recognition of the fact that reducing anxiety improves some test takers' performance. The point is rather that there would appear to have been a lessening, for better or for worse, in the competitiveness or higher purpose that can be an incentive to excellence.

We have suggested earlier our persuasion that women's lower average scores on the Mathematical part of the SAT reflect a traditional stereotyping of roles and occupations, which has resulted in at least some young women's seeing no earthly point in developing that particular proficiency.

The differences in academic performance among students with different socioeconomic backgrounds have been widely analyzed in terms that put less emphasis on cognitive development than on training in independence, resourcefulness, confidence, willingness to take risks, and realism in setting aspirations levels.

Distinctions are drawn in some of the studies between the effect of various patterns of parental relationship (1) on what children learn, and (2) on the degree to which they are encouraged to learn.

Are ill-considered promotions, increased absenteeism, and "easier" textbooks causes or consequences of reduced student motivation? Both, we suspect.

To have noted some of the motivational elements that seem apparent in the effects of television is only to have suggested others of perhaps larger significance.

We have made the point, involving what is essentially motivation, that the extraordinary national events of the past 10 years may very well have had the effect of distracting young people from the pursuit of intellectual excellence.

It has been suggested that youth's changing job prospects and attitudes toward work may be important elements in the chemistry of their motivation to prepare for college entrance examinations. Although this is probably true as far as individual students are concerned, some fairly careful analysis of the timing of "labor market" changes over the past 10 years and changes in the test score averages discloses no significant relationship so far as any *net* effects are concerned. There have probably

been different changes in this respect between female and male attitudinal patterns, and between those of higher- and lower-scoring groups of students. It is difficult to generalize about what effect varying degrees of encouragement and concern about job prospects may have in stimulating efforts to qualify for whatever may be available.

We note the possible motivational implications of the reports regarding two sets of questions on the Student Descriptive Questionnaire. One asks whether the test takers "want to receive help outside regular course work from the college you plan to attend. . ." going on then to list specific areas of possible assistance, including reading, mathematics, and writing. The answer is a resounding No in each of these three cases, by margins of about 8 to 1, and the percentage answering Yes has fallen off during the three years this question has been asked in its present form. (The only question showing any different reaction is one about help in finding work; a third of the test takers say Yes to this.) The panel members interpret this no-help-wanted reaction variously as a reflection of motivation, conditioned response, or a declaration of students' independence.

A good deal more significance may attach to the fact that there have been smaller than average declines during the past several years in the SAT scores of students who report on the SDQ that they have participated in various high school extracurricular activities (athletics; social clubs or community organizations; religious activities; music; journalism, drama, debating; student government; preprofessional or departmental clubs; or ethnic activities), and that they expect to do more of this in college. There are different views about the motivational elements involved in such participation, but the item has perhaps special interest in view of the suggestion that engaging in this kind of activity is a particularly reliable index to young people's longer-run future accomplishments. We commend further inquiry by the College Board and ETS into this area. It could possibly have considerable significance in suggesting not only basic elements in the reasons for the SAT score decline but also alternative forms of predictive testing.

We have noted in an earlier section of the report (Part Three) the possibility that there are motivational elements reflected in the fact that students taking Achievement Tests in conjunction with the SAT show a significantly less-than-average score decline pattern on the SAT itself (at least on the Mathematical part).

These would be, even at best, only possible footnotes to a motivational analysis of the SAT score decline, which we are not competent to make but which we commend as warranting further consideration. Such an analysis would not be limited to students' attitudes about tests but would include consideration of the motivational elements in the interrelationship between formal education and its broader societal context. It appears to us to be not just youth's motivations that are involved but also those of the society.

With respect to not only this motivational point but the preceding points as well, the panel notes that the frustrating limitations on understanding of the elements contributing to the "pervasive" influences on SAT-measured competence will be removed only when two additional research steps are taken: first, the extension of the Student Descriptive Questionnaire's scope to cover individual test takers' circumstances out-

side their formal education; second, the undertaking of longitudinal studies permitting the following up of sample cohorts of young people from childhood to maturity. The society has drawn back from this on grounds of concern about rights of privacy. But these can be fully protected. The larger problem is to overcome sensitivity about inquiring into areas in which the answers may be embarrassing because of what they indicate about such influences as poverty, prejudice, and the functioning of various institutions, including particularly the schools and the family.

Also, it is important to note that a limited instrument such as the SAT should not become the sole thermometer for measuring the health of schools, family, and student. It tells us nothing about young people's honesty and integrity, about whether they care about each other, or about a lot of other things that matter more than test scores. It would be a mistake to think about such major institutions as the schools and the family solely in terms of their effects on test scores.

In the View of Others

The panel has benefited from a generous volunteering of views regarding reasons for the SAT score decline. Although most of these comments are incorporated or at least reflected in various other sections of this report, this is not true of all of them. None of the suggestions received has been disregarded, and it is appropriate to note here those brought to our attention that we have either not pursued as fully as may be warranted or have followed up to the point of concluding that they are not significant.

Many of these reactions relate to the schools and suggest at least partial attribution of the decline to:

- "New math."
- Reading programs with insufficient emphasis on phonetics, vowels, consonants, and so forth.
- The expenditure of funds on school facilities instead of on teachers.
- Rising costs of postsecondary education, discouraging some superior students from applying to the characteristically more expensive colleges and universities, which require SAT scores.
- The independent school board system, which makes it impossible to set and require national achievement standards.
- Increasing legislative involvement in education, "tying the hands of school personnel with respect to discipline."
- Excessive reliance on clerical aids.
- The influence of "the soft pedagogical left," which "believes expressiveness is an adequate substitute for thinking and knowing, and which views leniency as a kindness to the underprivileged."
- The increased numbers of married female teachers.
- The "influx of male teachers and principals in the 1960s into a traditionally female domain."

Because of the frequency of suggestions that the score decline is attributable to "the introduction of experimental teaching methods," (or to "open classrooms in

which students choose activities in nongraded groups and work largely without teachers," etc.) the panel made particular efforts to explore this general area. Two different investigations proved generally inconclusive. Their indicated results are confirmed, however, by a federally sponsored study of some 30,000 students at the primary and elementary levels in 13 school districts in nine states, recently (December 1976) completed by the American Institutes for Research. The AIR study was based on a three-year follow-up of students who took the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills in 1970-71 at the 1st, 4th, or 6th-grade levels. "The single most important and well-documented finding," the AIR report concludes, "was the lack of either substantial or consistent association between student achievement and overall level of innovation across the grades." We find no evidence of any causal relationship between what are commonly referred to as "experimental teaching methods" and the SAT score decline.

The panel also looked into the suggestion that the introduction of more experiential (outside-of-school) training in the high schools may have contributed to a lessening development of students' abilities in the basic skill areas covered by the SAT. What evidence there is points in the other direction. One of the SDQ questions is about the part-time work the test takers have been doing. It has been going up slightly since 1973. Yet test takers reporting 1 to 15 hours of outside work a week average higher SAT scores than those doing no such work at all, and their score *declines* over the past four years have been less than the overall average. (Students reporting more than 15 hours of outside work show generally lower-than-average SAT scores, particularly Verbal scores. We assume, though without knowing, that this is the lower-socioeconomic-status group.)

A related question involves whatever shift may be taking place at the secondary school level away from liberal arts and toward more vocational and technically oriented training. Here again there is only totally inconclusive evidence about any possible effect on the SAT score averages. The SDQ reports confirm the fact that test takers enrolled in "career" courses of study in high school (which is a very small percentage, about 6 percent) average much lower scores on the SAT than do those enrolled in "academic" courses. The differences are about 100 points on both the Verbal and the Mathematical parts of the test. There has been only a negligible shift since 1973, however, in the percentage of SAT takers in the two groups; and the score declines have been almost identical.

Although the panel's attention has been directed repeatedly to the facts of increased schoolground violence and crime and juvenile alcoholism and drug addiction, we can add nothing here to what common knowledge and common sense already establish. These aberrations obviously affect not only the individuals directly involved but the broader educational process, and they have been increasing as the SAT scores have been going down. It seems worth noting only that these matters are consistently raised in terms of what is happening in the schools and among children. The problem is obviously broader than that. So far as the issue is why the SAT scores have been going down, the question is: What is causing the delinquent behavior?

With respect to the "forced busing" question, also frequently raised, we conclude from what information it has been possible to obtain that in those relatively few in-

stances in which busing has meant large-scale disruptions of one kind or another there has been an immediate negative impact on the educational process, although this has been characteristically of short duration. There is no way of determining or quantifying its *net* effect. Its incidence has in any event been restricted to so small a proportion of the national student population that it could have had at most only very slight effect on the SAT score averages.

There have been a number of suggestions that teacher organization and the development of collective bargaining have affected adversely both the amount of time teachers spend with students and their attitudes toward the profession. We have looked into this only to the extent of determining that there is no evidence available to permit an objective judgment one way or the other. This has seemed a sufficient basis for not going further into an issue on which the panel members' views would probably be about as divided as are those of the broader public.

So far as suggestions regarding possible causal factors outside the school system are concerned, the panel has taken particular notice of a number of suggestions that the score decline is attributable to health factors of one kind or another: to the increased use of chemical additives in foods, for example; to an increased resort to induced labor in pregnancy (with resultant brain damage); or to the effects of the uses of various forms of anesthesia in connection with childbirth. A study was commissioned to determine, broadly, the possibilities of a medical basis for the declining SAT scores. Its advice to the panel is, in short, that nothing in the available evidence warrants identifying these factors with the score decline, and that the evidence of stable or even increasing score averages in tests administered at the primary grade levels denies the suggestion that the test results at the higher grade levels can be properly traced to medical or health factors that have their largest impact during earlier childhood years.

Other suggestions tie the test score decline to increased pregnancy among younger women and rising abortion rates.

Still others attribute the decline to "a growing rejection of traditional Western religions" and to a concomitant turning to "religions of the East, drug-related religions, mysticism, witchcraft, astrology," or, with different emphasis, to a growing "preference for fantasy over reality" and "celebration of the ideology of irrationalism, in which knowledge is attained through intuition, inspiration, and revelation."

Concern about a "crisis in values" is widely expressed, but with varying emphases: on "subversive political activity by Communists"; on the promotion of pornography; on the "grabbing of political power by the NAACP, NEA, CLU and others . . . [so that] public school children are misguided through negative education, . . . groomed in total disgust with the nation, family, and self"; on the "impact of the counterculture with its hostility to reason, to science, to technology, to industry, to the work ethic"; on a "revolution in values, including a decline in the Protestant ethic . . . , the idea of success, . . . the idea of work itself"; a "tidal wave of moral bewilderment, concern, and resentment."

Although some of these suggestions seem to the panel to offer little in themselves as far as explaining the decline in the test scores is concerned, we imply nothing one way or the other here about the broader values they reflect. In general we find the

sum of these contributions substantially helpful in suggesting the character of a period, covered by the score decline, which has been an unusually hard one to grow up in.

Part Five. Summing Up

If you turned to this concluding section for a quick and easy understanding of the panel's views on the decline of test scores, you are indulging in a practice like some of the educational shortcuts that may have contributed to the decline. This is a complex subject, and our views of it are filled with nuances, qualifications, and some doubts. The quality of our judgments is conditioned by the quality of the evidence. Without a reading of the report, the summary may suggest a simplicity that is unfair to an important subject.

Looking first at the technical aspects of the SAT score decline, the panel has determined that the decline does not result from the test having become, in terms of common usage, "harder." More precisely, our analysis of the equating and scaling procedures that have been followed here indicates that the decline has been several points larger than is shown. To the extent, nevertheless, that the SAT is held out as providing an essentially constant measure of levels of aptitude in the areas it covers, permitting reliable comparisons over periods of time, we find it to have been maintained with superior competence and fidelity.

We find that, despite the decline in score averages, the SAT continues to be a valid instrument for helping to determine how well those taking it will do in their college courses, especially those in the first year. Its predictive validity has in fact increased slightly over the past several years.

We commend to the College Board and ETS, nevertheless, the undertaking of a broader inquiry into the function of tests at the passage point between high school and college. Such an inquiry would not be limited to what conventional testing procedures measure regarding traditionally emphasized competencies; nor should it be confined to an evaluation based on examinations and statistics comparing the effectiveness of learning today with what it was in the past—by standards the past adopted. That inquiry would proceed from a determination of how much this country wants to develop of the limitless human resource, which is what education is all about.

The panel members share strongly what has now become national concern about the implications of the declining test scores, about the increasing (or at least increasingly recognized) signs of functional illiteracy, and about an apparent deterioration in the use of the English language. Yet we share, too, the sobering realization that a good many of the younger members of our families seem to know quite a lot more about quite a few things than we did when we were their age. Even as we pursue this inquiry into what is apparently going wrong as reflected in the decline of the SAT scores, we urge that a broader look be taken at the whole picture—including whether we are testing in the best possible way whatever ought to be tested.

Turning then to the broader aspects and implications of the SAT score decline, our assessment of this continuous 14-year drop in averages is that it is unquestionably significant. Particularly when the SAT record is set beside the broader pattern of comparable declines on other standardized academic tests, it emerges as a development warranting careful attention by educators and by everybody interested in education.

It is in no way inconsistent with this appraisal to point out that these declines cover a period of notable extension and expansion of educational opportunity in the United States, coincident with the experiencing of virtually unprecedented turbulence in the nation's affairs. The record may suggest as much about youth's inherent resiliency and the resourcefulness of the formal educational process under unusual circumstances as about deterioration in either personal or institutional fibers. We have wondered sometimes in the course of our inquiry why the score declines haven't been larger.

In general, the causal factors apparently involved here fall into two categories so different that it seems helpful to think in terms of what are virtually two score declines. One reflects primarily changes in the SAT-taking population; these score averages measure a different and broader cross section of American youth from the group they measured 20 or 15 or even 10 years ago. The reasons for the other aspect of the decline are more elusive; they include the apparently pervasive influences, affecting virtually all groups of students alike, of changes in the practices of the schools and in the American social fabric.

Most—probably two-thirds to three-fourths—of the SAT score decline between 1963 and about 1970 was related to the "compositional" changes in the group of students taking this college entrance examination.

That was a period of major expansion in the number and proportion of students completing high school, resulting only in part from the post-World War II population wave, which came along then. The rest of the growth reflected the deliberate national undertaking during that period to expand and extend educational opportunity—by reducing the high school drop-out rate, by trying to eliminate previous discrimination based on ethnicity or sex or family financial circumstance, and by opening college doors much wider.

In the panel's view, it would be a deceptive misstatement to describe this first cause of the SAT score decline as being simply that increased percentages of lower-scoring groups of students began taking the test. The cause lies rather in whatever the reasons may be for this lower scoring. What the decline reflects is the incompleteness so far of the national undertaking to afford meaningful equality of educational opportunity. This leaves the question of whether a 75 percent cross section of all young people *can* be brought up to the 11th- or 12th-grade academic attainment level previously achieved by 50 percent of them. Part of democracy's sustaining notion is that they can be.

It is important to recognize in a related connection that to the extent the lower SAT averages reflect an expansion of the test-taking population to include a different mix of young people, the decline indicates nothing about changing abilities or aptitudes of this age group *as a whole*. We simply don't know what the *net* effects here have been.

Even during this first period, however, there were emerging signs of more "pervasive" influences or forces, going beyond any "compositional" changes, which were having an effect not only on the overall SAT averages but also within the various groupings of test takers.

From about 1970 on, the composition of the SAT-taking population has become comparatively more stabilized with respect to its economic, ethnic, and social background. Yet the score decline continued and then accelerated; there were particularly sharp drops during the three-year period from 1972 to 1975. Only about a quarter of the decline since 1970 can be attributed to continuing change in the make-up of the test-taking group. With a handful of exceptions, the drop in scores in recent years has been virtually across the board, affecting high-scoring and lower-scoring groups alike.

This second set of factors contributing to the SAT score decline can be summarized only in broad terms and with full recognition of two related qualifications. First, any attempt to isolate developments in the schools from those in the society at large turns out to reflect principally the inclination to institutionalize blame for whatever is going wrong; the formal part of the learning process cannot be separated from its societal context. Second, to the extent these causal factors are understood at present, they are inextricably interwoven with each other; any pointing to one development or another as if it were *the*, or even *a*, cause of the decline is invariably misleading.

As already noted, we think that two-thirds to three quarters of the score decline from 1963 to 1970 and about a quarter of the decline since 1970 were caused by complex interacting factors relating to the changing membership in the population tested. Overall this suggests that about half of the decline is properly traced to these factors. The remainder seems to us identifiable in large part with six other sets of developments:

- *One*. There has been a significant dispersal of learning activities and emphasis in the schools, reflected particularly in the adding of many elective courses and a reduction of the number of courses that all students alike are required to take. This has been true particularly in the English and verbal skills area.

In the panel's judgment, any broadside condemnation of "more electives" is mistaken. Many of these courses are designed to interest and motivate students, and they are not properly considered as having by their nature a negative effect on basic learning. We would not recommend any single formulation of subject matter or teaching method, for it is clear that both traditional and innovative approaches to learning can produce good results—or bad. We are inclined to believe, nevertheless, that probably well-intentioned change has reduced the continuity of study in major fields with consequent effect on the development of verbal and (to a lesser extent) quantitative relations skills, and that too large a proportion of the curriculum changes in recent years has been accompanied by a tendency to avoid precise thinking and the demands it makes on both students and teachers. The SAT score decline probably reflects in part the effects of the schools' placing reduced emphasis on steady growth in verbal and mathematical competence.

We attach central importance to restoring the traditions of critical reading and careful writing.

- *Two.* There is clearly observable evidence of diminished seriousness of purpose and attention to mastery of skills and knowledge in the learning process as it proceeds in the schools, the home, and the society generally. This takes a variety of apparently disparate but actually interrelated forms: automatic grade-to-grade promotions, grade inflation, the tolerance of increased absenteeism, the lowering of the demand levels of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials, the reduction of homework, the lowering of college entrance standards, and the inclusion of "remedial" courses in postsecondary education.

Each of these issues presents its own quandary. We are *not* suggesting simplistic "solutions" through which all students are treated alike by being held in a grade until they reach a common standard, suspended from schools as a penalty for absenteeism, subjected to the same more demanding reading materials, overloaded with homework, confronted with some national common denominator of college entrance, or denied needed help in skills development in college.

Each of these problems has developed in response to the wider spectrum of interests and abilities the schools and colleges are now trying to serve. In a sense the schools may have tried so hard to accommodate the special needs of new and unfamiliar students that these very students along with others have been ill served by not being held to demanding expectations of performance. The lowering of teaching sights is the wrong answer to whatever may have been the consequences of the expansion and extension of educational opportunity. The only right answer is to vary the instructional process still more to take account of increased individual differences, but without lowering standards—which we recognize as a form of magic, but one that has been performed in this country for a long time.

- *Three.* Particularly because of the impact of television, but as a consequence of other developments as well, a good deal more of most children's learning now develops through viewing and listening than through traditional modes. Little is known yet about the effects of this change, including its relationship to performance levels on standardized examinations.

We surmise that the extensive time consumed by television detracts from homework, competes with schooling more generally, and has contributed to the decline in SAT score averages. Yet we are convinced that television and related forms of communication give the future of learning its largest promise. The most constructive approach seems to us to depend less on limiting the uses of these processes than it does on the willingness of the community and the family to exercise the same responsibility for what is taught and learned in this way as they have exercised with respect to older forms of education.

- *Four.* There have unquestionably been changes, during the period relating to the score decline, in the role of the family in the educational process. Social sensitivity has precluded thorough inquiry into this area, so that only the readily observable structural changes can be noted: the rapidly increasing number and percentage of children, for example, in less than complete families. While evidence is not available to determine the effect of these changes on students' college entrance examination scores, our conjecture is that it is negative.
- *Five.* The concentration of the score declines in the three-year period between

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1972 and 1975 leads the panel to suspect strongly that one important element here was the disruption in the life of the country during the time when those groups of test takers were getting ready for their college entrance examinations.

• *Six.* For whatever combination of reasons, there has been an apparent marked diminution in young people's learning motivation, at least as it appears to be related, directly and indirectly, to their performance on college entrance examinations. Although this may be largely only another dimension of the preceding points, it is perhaps most significant of all that during the past 10 years the curve of the SAT scores has followed very closely the curve of the entire nation's spirits and self-esteem and sense of purpose.

So there is no *one* cause of the SAT score decline, at least as far as we can discern, and we suspect no single pattern of causes. Learning is too much a part of Life to have expected anything else.

It would be too bad, furthermore, if our concentration on the implications of a decline in the statistical averages on a set of standardized examinations should seem to ignore how incomplete a measure this is of either educational or broader human purpose. While we ask why the scores on college entrance examinations have gone down, T. S. Eliot's probing goes much deeper: "Where is the learning we have lost in information? Where is the understanding we have lost in knowledge? Where is the life we have lost in living?"

Yet in the panel's view of it all, the fact of the hard asking—of both kinds of questions—offers new promise of new answers. We find nothing in the record we have reviewed to discourage the conviction that learning in America can be made all that is hoped for it. What is clearest is the reflection, in the reactions to these test scores and to the poet's lament alike, of renewed purpose to implement these hopes. The future continues to seem a good idea.

Reference Notes

The panel has relied in large part on studies undertaken and reports prepared at its special request. These are being published as appendixes to this report. An annotated listing of them follows these Reference Notes, as does a more comprehensive Bibliography of all sources on which the panel has relied. The specially prepared papers and reports are identified in the Reference Notes by an asterisk. They are all the work, except where otherwise indicated, of the staff of Educational Testing Service or the College Board.

Part One. The Scholastic Aptitude Test and the Score Decline

The description of the SAT score pattern is based largely on *A Summary of SAT Score Statistics for College Board Candidates** (1976) prepared for the panel by Rex Jackson. Additional sources are indicated in the footnotes to Table 1.

Sample questions from the various sections of the SAT appear at the back of this report, following the Bibliography.

Part Two. An Unchanging Standard

As It Was in the Beginning:

The technical details of procedures followed in making scaled scores comparable over time and equating new editions of the SAT with previous editions are set out in *The College Board Admissions Testing Program: A Technical Report on Research and Development Activities Relating to the Scholastic Aptitude Test and Achievement Tests*, published by the College Board in 1971. For technical descriptions and assessments made under independent auspices, see *The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited by Oscar Buros (1972).

The panel's conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the scaling and equating procedures are based on two studies, one by Christopher Modu and June Stern, *The Stability of the SAT Score Scale** (1975), the other by Albert Beaton, Thomas Hilton, and William Schrader, *Changes in the Verbal Abilities of High School Seniors, College Entrants, and SAT Candidates between 1960 and 1972** (1977). The panel's review of possible "item obsolescence" in the test items which reappear in different forms and are used for equating was facilitated by the analysis by James Braswell and Nancy Petersen, *An Investigation of Item Obsolescence in the Scholastic Aptitude Test** (1976).

The discussion of the predictive validity of the SAT is based on the studies made by the colleges participating in the Admissions Testing Program Validity Study Service, the results of which have been synthesized by Susan Ford and Sandy Campos, *Summary of Validity Data from the Admissions Testing Program Validity Study Service** (1977).

The development and administration of the SAT are reported on in a series of four

articles by Jim Landers and J. Stryker Meyer in *The Sunday Times-Advertiser* and *The Evening Times*, Trenton, N.J., March 28-31, 1976.

A Changing Context?

The panel's consideration of the "relevancy" issue was illuminated by letters received from Terry Herndon, executive director of the National Education Association, and Professor Robert Bannister of Swarthmore College.

The reference to the continuing correlation of SAT scores with high school grades is based on an analysis by Rex Jackson, *Correlations of SAT Scores with High School Record** (1977).

The student valedictorian story is reported by Stephen Klaidman in *The Washington Post*, August 15, 1976.

Cross sections of current adverse criticism of educational testing are contained in several recent symposiums: Association for Childhood Education International, *Testing and Evaluation: New Views* (1975); American Federation of Teachers, "To Test or Not To Test: An Examination of the Educational Testing Controversy," *American Educator*, Winter 1977; National Education Association, "Special Feature on Testing," *Today's Education*, March-April 1977; *The Myth of Measurability*, edited by Paul L. Houts (1977). See also Cynthia Parsons, "SAT + ACT = College Tests in a Mess," *The Christian Science Monitor*, March 29, 1976; B. Bruce Briggs, "The Great Classroom Debacle," *The Wall Street Journal*, July 20, 1976. The panel notes these criticisms without any suggestion of its views regarding them.

Part Three. The Two Score Declines

Compositional Change:

The data used at the beginning of the section to describe youth and student population changes are from Table 1 of the report. The discussion of changes in the proportions of students graduating from high school and going on to college is based on the historical series maintained by the Bureau of the Census, recording the percentage of 1,000 5th-graders who are retained in school at each grade beyond that, who graduate from high school, and who enroll in college (see *Digest of Educational Statistics*, 1975 edition, Table 10, p. 14, National Center for Educational Statistics). The statistics in Table 1 cannot be used to derive school retention rates since any one school class is composed of youth of varying ages, while the population figures in Table 1 cover only 18-year-olds.

The composite analysis of SAT, Project TALENT, and National Longitudinal Study data was made for the panel by Albert Beaton, Thomas Hilton, and William Schrader, *Changes in the Verbal Abilities of High School Seniors, College Entrants, and SAT Candidates between 1960 and 1972** (1977). Data from the American Council on Education's annual Freshman National Norms Study and from the ACT Student Profile reports were also used to examine compositional changes. See Richard L. Ferguson and E. James Maxey, *Trends in the Academic Performance of High School and College Students*, American College Testing Program Report No. 70, January 1976; E. James Maxey, *Trends in the Academic Abilities, Background Characteristics, and Educational and Vocational Plans of College-Bound Students*, American College Testing Program Report No. 74, May 1976.

Changes in college-going patterns as they affect SAT scores are analyzed in the study by William Schrader, *Distribution of SAT Scores to Colleges as an Indicator of Changes in the SAT Candidate Population** (1976), and in Samuel S. Peng's paper, "Some Trends in the Entry to Higher Education: A Comparison between NLS and Project TALENT" (1976).

The influence of changes in the extent of repeating the SAT is explored in Rex Jackson's study, *An Examination of Declining Numbers of High-Scoring SAT Candidates** (1977).

Regarding reliance on cram courses, see *Effects of Coaching on Scholastic Aptitude Test Scores* (College Entrance Examination Board, 1965); Lewis W. Pike and Franklin R. Evans, *Effects of Special Instruction for Three Kinds of Mathematics Aptitude Items* (College Entrance Examination Board, 1972); Bart Barnes, "Area Pupils Attend Special Cram Courses to Prep for SAT," *The Washington Post*, October 18, 1976; Linda K. Nathan, "'Improving' Law School Aptitude Is Big Business," *The New York Times*, November 14, 1976.

Pervasive Change:

Evidence of the relatively more stable makeup of the SAT population and of the pervasive nature of much of the decline during the period between 1973 and 1977 has been obtained from a computer printout of the Student Descriptive Questionnaire data. A generally corroborative picture of experience with respect to the ACT is provided by *The High School Profile Report, 1975-76*, issued by the American College Testing Program.

Further and more detailed information on the nature of the SAT score decline in this period is contained in the papers by Rex Jackson on *An Examination of Declining Numbers of High-Scoring SAT Candidates** (1977) and on *Trends in Mean SAT Scores for Students from the High School Classes of 1971-72 and 1975-76 Belonging to Selected School and College Groups** (1977); in Thomas Donlon and Gary Echternacht's report on *A Feasibility Study of the SAT Performance of High-Ability Students from 1960 to 1974 (Valedictorian Study)** (1976); in James Nelson's *A Review of Data Available regarding Family Income and Financial Aid Characteristics of Students** (1976); and in June Stern's analysis of *Selected Percentiles for Scholastic Aptitude Test Scores (1966-67 through 1975-76)** (1977). For a state-level study reaching similar conclusions about the pervasive nature of the score decline in this period see Janice J. Weinman, *Declining Test Scores: A State Study*, Massachusetts Department of Education (1977).

Through Other Looking Glasses:

The panel's consideration of the experiences of other major national or statewide testing programs is based on the standard published reports of the sponsoring agencies and on studies that include summaries and analyses of a variety of other tests. Particular note is made of the analysis of other test score experiences by Annagret Harnischfeger and David Wiley in *Achievement Test Score Decline: Do We Need to Worry?* (1975); the ACT research report by Leo Munday on *Declining Admissions Test Scores*, American College Testing Program Report No. 71, February 1976; a report by Frank E. Armbruster, *The U.S. Primary and Secondary Educational Process* (Hudson Institute, 1975); the analysis by John Flanagan and Steven Jung, *Progress in*

Education: A Sample Survey (American Institutes for Research, 1971); John Flanagan's report at the American Educational Research Association meeting in 1976 on "Changes in School Levels of Achievement: Project TALENT Ten and Fifteen Year Retests"; an exerpt* from the paper, *A Summary of Score Change*, delivered by T. Anne Cleary and Sam McCandless at the 1977 annual meeting of the Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges.

Data regarding PSAT/NMSQT scores are presented in Rex Jackson's study *Mean Scores for PSAT and PSAT/NMSQT Junior Candidates* (1976).

The discussion of Achievement Test candidates' scores on both those tests and the SAT is based on June Stern's *Table of SAT and Achievement Test Scores for Samples of Candidates Taking Achievement Tests 1966-67 to 1975-76** (1977).

Part Four. Circumstantial Evidence

In the Schools:

Courses of Study. As indicated in the report, extensive reliance has been placed by the panel on the studies by Harnischfeger and Wiley and by Weinman, noted above. See also the *Survey of Curricula Offerings*, prepared by the Massachusetts Department of Education, 1967-68, 1970-71, 1972-73, and 1975-76. The California picture is described in a series of three articles by Jack McCurdy and Don Speich in *The Los Angeles Times*, August 15-17, 1976; the panel has not made an independent check of the reported facts. Changes in courses taken have also been traced through special tabulations of the Student Descriptive Questionnaire data; these data are subject to the possible influences on student self-reporting.

The panel has not made an independent study of the extent to which there have been declines in reading and writing. Reference is appropriate, however, to the report prepared for the U. S. Office of Education by ETS and the University of Indiana (R. Farr, J. Turnman, and M. Rowls) on *Reading Achievement in the United States: Then and Now* (1975); Donald Graves, "Writing: An Endangered Species," *The Common*, March 1977; A. Bartlett Giamatti, "The Language Barrier: Why Students Can't Write," *Yale Alumni Magazine*, January 1976; "Why Johnny Can't Write," *Newsweek*, December 8, 1975. A study of the federally financed Follow Through program, entitled *Education as Experimentation*, has been made recently by Abt Associates for the Office of Education; not yet available for general distribution, its conclusions are suggested by Lawrence Feinberg in "Basic Teaching Methods More Effective, Study Says," *The Washington Post*, June 20, 1977.

Learning Standards. Average daily attendance data are derived from the *Digest of Educational Statistics* and *A Century of Public School Statistics* (1975), both prepared by the National Center for Educational Statistics. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals' report, on "Student Attendance and Absenteeism," is in *The Practitioner*, March 1975.

The panel's discussion of textbook content is based on a study made by Professor Jeanne Chall of Harvard University, *An Analysis of Textbooks in Relation to Declining SAT Scores** (1976). See also the *Report on a National Study of the Nature and the Quality of Instructional Materials Most Used by Teachers and Learners*, Educational Products Information Exchange Report No. 76 (1977).

Staff and Facilities. Information on teacher experience and education and on pupil-teacher ratios is based on data developed by various offices of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, particularly by the National Center for Educational Statistics (*The Condition of Education* [1975-77]); most of it is summarized in Harnischfeger and Wiley, noted above.

The Broader Learning Context:

Parents as Teachers. The specific references are to James S. Coleman's *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (1966) and to Christopher Jencks' *Inequality: A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America* (1972). A large number of studies of the comparative importance of family background and school influences have appeared subsequently (see Edward Kifer, "The Relationship between the Home and School in Influencing the Learning of Children," a paper delivered at the Pre-Convention Conference on Research, National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago, Illinois, November 23, 1976).

Regarding the effects of family size and sibling order on academic tests, the panel had available to it the studies of R. B. Zajonc, "Intellectual Environment and Intelligence" (unpublished paper, 1975) and "Birth Order and Intellectual Development" (*Psychological Review*, 1975) as well as Hunter Breland's *Family Configuration Effects and the Decline in College Admissions Test Scores: A Review of the Zajonc Hypothesis** (1976). See also Carol Tavris, "The End of the IQ Slump," *Psychology Today*, April 1976.

The Condition of Education (1975-77) (National Center for Educational Statistics) provides a historical series on children under 18 who are living with two parents, one, or none. See also Urie Bronfenbrenner, "The Calamitous Decline of the American Family," *The Washington Post*, January 2, 1977.

The report of trends in published teaching materials is from Barbara Thompson Howell's presentation to the New Jersey Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, New Jersey, May 12, 1977.

Television—Test of the Modern World. We relied heavily on panel member Wilbur Schramm's report to us on *Television and the Test Scores** (1976).

The conjecturing about the functioning of the mind is based on suggestions received from Professor Bikkar S. Randhawa of the University of Iowa. There is help for understanding, too, in a symposium entitled "Inside the Brain: The Last Great Frontier," *The Saturday Review*, August 9, 1975; *Television and Children, Priorities for Research*, a report of a conference sponsored by The Ford Foundation at Reston, Virginia, November 5-7, 1975; "What TV Does to Kids," *Newsweek*, February 2, 1977. But see also Max Gunther, "How Television Helps Johnny Read," *TV Guide*, September 4, 1976.

The E. B. White quotation is from his column "One Man's Meat," *Harper's Magazine*, 1938.

A Decade of Distraction. At the panel's request, R. H. Glover prepared two contextual maps of *Major Societal Changes in U.S. (1933-44 and 1945-75): Contextual Mapping** (1976). The influences we refer to particularly are described in the chapters entitled "Up against the Wall" in William Manchester's *The Glory and the Dream* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1974).

Motivation:

The paper prepared for the panel is by Professor David Winter of Wesleyan University, *Motivational Factors in the SAT Score Decline** (1976).

We have also relied to a limited extent on the Student Descriptive Questionnaire data, but with realization of the various elements that may affect the test takers' answers to these questions.

In the View of Others:

These views have been distilled from a large number of letters, personal conversations, and publications by Yvonne Wharton, in *List of Hypotheses Advanced to Explain the SAT Score Decline** (1975).

The two studies of the history of SAT scores in various types of schools are Gary Echternacht's *A Comparative Study of Secondary Schools with Different Score Patterns** (1976) and Rex Jackson's *Comparison of SAT Score Trends in Selected Schools Judged To Have Traditional or Experimental Orientations** (1976). The panel also drew on the study by the American Institutes for Research, *Impact of Educational Innovation on Student Performance* (1976).

Annotated List of Studies and Papers

The panel asked for a variety of studies and papers to assist in understanding the score decline. These papers proved useful for that purpose, even though the panel did not use all the material in them or necessarily agree with all the conclusions. They are published as a separate Appendix to the panel's report, so that this information will be available to others who wish to go more deeply into the subject. What follows is an annotated list of these commissioned studies and papers.

Arnold, C. B. *Could There Be a Medical Basis for the Declining SAT Scores?* January 1977, 8 pa[illegible]

A bri[illegible]nary and analysis of the medical and epidemiological literature dealing with nutrition, drugs, genetic and prenatal conditions, labor and delivery, child development, health status, and health care over several decades in the United States. It concludes that the decline in SAT scores is probably not the result of disease processes or physical environmental factors.

Beaton, A. E.; Hilton, T. L.; and Schrader, W. B. *Changes in the Verbal Abilities of High School Seniors, College Entrants, and SAT Candidates between 1960 and 1972.* January 1977, 81 pages.

Two major social science research efforts – Project TALENT in 1960 and the National Longitudinal Study in 1972 – obtained extensive data on ability and other significant characteristics for national probability samples of high school seniors. Both surveys made follow-up studies to determine which of these seniors had entered college in the year following high school graduation. This study was designed to use these two exceptional data bases to document changes between 1960 and 1972 for high school seniors, college entrants, and the SAT-taking population. The data of the national surveys were supplemented by the results of a special equating study and by a search of SAT files for about 20,000 members of the TALENT sample.

The study was concerned with three groups – high school seniors, college entrants, and SAT takers. Because reading scores were available for all three groups, it was possible (after equating the reading tests used) to measure changes in reading ability for all three groups. In addition, it was possible to study subgroups of the three main groups. The subgroups were defined on the basis of each of the following characteristics: age, sex, father's education, mother's education, father's occupation, mother's occupation, family configuration, high school curriculum, and expected college major field.

The main conclusions of the study are as follows.

1. All three groups showed a decline in reading ability between 1960 and 1972. The

decline for SAT takers, however, is markedly greater than that for the other two groups.

2. A much greater increase in the proportion of low-ability than of high-ability students who took the SAT appears to be the predominant source of the SAT score decline between 1960 and 1972. The decrease in ability level of high school seniors during this period also contributed to the decline.

3. There is some evidence that SAT scores earned in 1960 and 1972 are not precisely comparable. The data suggest that the actual decline in average verbal ability of SAT candidates from 1960 to 1972 was somewhat greater than the SAT scores indicate.

4. There were appreciable changes in the background characteristics studied for all three groups. None of them made a major contribution to accounting for the score decline among high school seniors or college entrants. A decrease in the percentage of SAT takers entering four-year colleges may help to explain the greater score decline observed for this group.

Braswell, J., and Petersen, N. *An Investigation of Item Obsolescence in the Scholastic Aptitude Test.* October 1976 (revised January 1977). 74 pages.

Two panels, one concentrating on the verbal sections of the SAT and the other on the mathematical, were appointed to review and rate questions that appeared in earlier editions of the test and then in more recent editions. Raters were asked to indicate how the difficulty of each question might be expected to change between the two administration dates. The raters' predictions were then compared with available item analysis data. For the most part, the changes predicted by raters were not substantiated by the statistical analysis. While the relative difficulty of some questions changed between administration dates, it was not possible, except for a few mathematical questions, to attribute these changes to curricular change or to broader social factors. These mathematical questions were predicted by the raters to be relatively easier at the more recent administration, and their prediction was supported by the statistical analysis.

Breland, H. M. *Family Configuration Effects and the Decline in College Admissions Test Scores: A Review of the Zajonc Hypothesis.* September 1976 (revised February 1977). 15 pages.

A hypothesis that part of the SAT score decline is a result of changing American family sizes and configurations is explored. This possible explanation of declining SAT scores had been offered by Robert B. Zajonc in an article in *Science* that reviewed the evidence for a relation between family configuration and cognitive development. Since a number of investigations have shown that "earlyborn" students—those who were the first or second child in their families—and members of small families tend to have higher scores on tests such as the SAT, a change in the representation of students who are earlyborn and members of small families in the population could possibly cause a decline in the average for the total population. The hypothesis is explored through a consideration of the magnitude of the change in family configurations over the years of interest and the magnitude of observed score differences for the SAT. It is concluded that, while the Zajonc hypothesis seems sound, it could only account for a small portion of the total SAT score decline.

Breland, H. M. *The SAT Score Decline: A Summary of Related Research.* January 1976, 40 pages.

This paper surveys the available evidence pertaining to the score decline in terms of five hypothesis areas: the test, the test-taking population, the college-bound population, the schools, and societal factors. It contains a description of the SAT score decline in both graphic and tabular form as well as population data for the years 1957 through 1973. Based on the data available at the time the panel began its deliberations, it is concluded that the evidence confirms a general decline in the abilities of the college-bound population but is less clear with respect to the high school population. It is speculated that the declines in the college-bound population are due to several factors acting in combination: increases in the proportion of low- and middle-income students, reductions in the numbers of test repeaters, changes in the mix of SAT-user colleges, and less-strict policies regarding college admissions.

Chall, J. S., with Conard, S. S., and Harris, S. H. *An Analysis of Textbooks in Relation to Declining SAT Scores.* November 1976 (revised March 1977), 99 pages.

The authors analyzed the reading selections from six SATs, two from the stable years (1947 and 1955), one from a pivotal year (1962), and three from the declining years (1967, 1972, 1975). Samples of the textbooks used most widely by these six SAT cohorts during their elementary and high school years were analyzed—35 textbooks and approximately 20 workbooks and teacher's guidebooks in reading, grammar and composition, literature, and history for grades 1, 6, and 11.

The various textbooks and SAT reading passages were analyzed using various indices of difficulty and challenge—the Dale-Chall Readability Formula for level of reading/comprehension difficulty, Chall's Reading Stages for level of linguistic and cognitive maturity, a rating scale for assessing question difficulty adapted from Bloom's Taxonomy, etc.

1. Readability analyses of the SAT passages reveals a general decreasing trend in difficulty from the two stable years (1947 and 1955) through the pivotal year (1962), to the declining years (1967, 1972, and 1975).

2. A possible gap between the difficulty of the SAT passages and the difficulty of the 11th-grade textbooks is indicated. The SAT passages proved to be the most difficult of any of the materials analyzed—more difficult than any of the textbooks. Two of the SAT passages were on the level of grades 13-15 and four on the level of grades 11-12. The history, literature, and grammar and composition 11th-grade textbooks had an average readability level of grades 9-10.

3. There are signs in the data of a recent increasing challenge in the textbooks, particularly at the elementary level.

4. The authors find what appears to be a particularly low level of challenge in writing. Generally the assignments in reading, history, and literature textbooks ask mostly for underlining, circling, and filling in of single words. Few assignments ask students to write a paragraph, story, letter, or theme.

Cleary, T. A., and McCandless, S. A. *Summary of Score Changes (in Other Tests).* February 1, 1977, 10 pages. An excerpt from the authors' "Score Declines and Grade Inflation," a paper delivered at the annual meeting of the Northwest Association

of Schools and Colleges, Portland, Oregon, December 1976.
Summarizes the experience of other testing programs, indicating the degrees to which average scores in each changed over the period of the SAT score decline.

Donlon, T., and Echternacht, G. *A Feasibility Study of the SAT Performance of High-Ability Students from 1960 to 1974 (Valedictorian Study)*. October 1976 (revised February 1977). 53 pages.
This is a study of the SAT records of valedictorians and salutatorians in three groups of schools: "experimental" schools, specifically chosen for demographic stability; "comparison" schools, selected for stability but by less stringent criteria; and "private" schools. For each group SAT-V and SAT-M scores in the even-numbered years from 1960 to 1974 were studied.

For the "experimental" group, there is no evidence of score decline in either SAT-V or M. Instead the trends have been toward very modest annual increases. For the "comparison" group the data indicated an initial period of increase, followed by a decrease. Each of these two special samples differed significantly from the SAT-taking population. The "private" schools, however, were not significantly different, showing a decline similar to the total College Board population.

Echternacht, G. *A Comparative Study of Secondary Schools with Different Score Patterns*. October 1976 (revised January 1977). 52 pages.
In this study, the curriculum, institutional, teacher, and student factors associated with those schools having large decreases in SAT score averages were compared with the same factors associated with schools having increasing or steady SAT score averages. It was believed that by identifying these factors, some insight into the role that school characteristics have played in the score decline might come to light. Although some significant differences between the two groups were found in terms of enrollments in academic courses, ability grouping, age of schools, dropout rate, and teacher experience, these were judged not to explain a large portion of the decline. Indeed, differences among schools do not appear to have had large differential effects on the decline of scores.

Ford, S. F., and Campos, S. *Summary of Validity Data from the Admissions Testing Program Validity Study Service*. June 1977.
Validity data (prediction of first-year grade-point average) for colleges participating in the Admissions Testing Program Validity Study Service (VSS) and based on students entering college in 1964 through 1974 are summarized for the following predictors: SAT-verbal score, SAT-mathematical score, high school record, and these three predictors combined.

No definite trends over time are apparent for SAT validities, although those obtained for 1973 and 1974 were generally among the highest observed. There was a downward trend in the validity of high school record accompanied by a slight downward trend in multiple correlations for all three predictors combined. Median validities for colleges having SAT-V means between 450 and 549 tended to be higher than those for colleges having means below 450 or above 550. The great majority of colleges participating in the VSS were found to be four-year colleges. Separate analyses

of the small number of two-year colleges in the sample yielded slightly lower median validities for each of the predictors than those found for the total sample.

Glover, R. H. *Major Societal Changes in U. S. (1933-44 and 1945-75): Contextual Mapping*. April 1976 (revised August 1976).
For a span of 42 years (1933-75) a fold-out chart displays major events and influences on events, products, and other phenomena, suggesting their interconnectedness in graphic form. The presentation covers occurrences in the following areas: political, social and cultural, economic and financial, legislative and legal, population and human ecology, and knowledge and technology. The August 1976 revision is accompanied by a scenario for the period 1976-85.

Jackson, R. *Comparison of SAT Score Trends in Selected Schools Judged To Have Traditional or Experimental Orientations*. October 1976, 7 pages.
A group of schools consisting largely of highly regarded schools in affluent suburban areas was divided into two groups—those judged to have a traditional orientation and those judged to have a more experimental orientation (in terms of course and program structure). A review of the mean SAT scores of SAT candidates from the 1966, 1969, 1973, and 1976 graduating classes from these schools shows that (a) mean SAT scores for both school groups were substantially higher than national averages, and (b) declines in mean SAT scores for both groups over the period studied very nearly paralleled the national declines.

This was a small-scale pilot test using available data. Because of the relatively fallible procedures used for classifying schools and because of a general lack of experimental controls of the effects of extraneous factors, the results cannot support any general conclusions about the possible relation of experimentation in the schools to score decline. Because of the essentially negative findings of this pilot test, a more substantial study of this group of schools was not attempted.

Jackson, R. *Correlations of SAT Scores with High School Record*. January 1977, 6 pages.
Two sets of data are examined: (a) correlations of SAT scores with student reports of class standing (collected by means of the Student Descriptive Questionnaire) for 1971-72 through 1975-76, and (b) correlations of SAT scores with measures of high school performance for groups of students attending colleges participating in the College Board Validity Study Service, for entering classes from 1964 through 1974. The correlations of SAT scores with self-reported class rank are virtually level over the five years studied. The longer-term comparisons using validity study data suggest that the median correlations of SAT verbal or mathematical scores with high school record may have increased somewhat over the 11 years studied.

Jackson, R. *An Examination of Declining Numbers of High-Scoring SAT Candidates*. January 1977, 12 pages.
The sharp declines in numbers of SAT candidates scoring over 600, which were observed from 1969-70 through 1974-75, are examined. Several suggested explanations of this phenomenon relating to test-taking patterns are discussed. Specifically examined are the possibilities that less SAT-to-SAT repetition, or less PSAT-to-SAT repetition, or less overlap between SAT and ACT among high-scoring students might ac-

count for some part of the observed declines. Although ideal data for testing all these explanations were not available, certain data in hand suggest that, while changes in test-taking patterns may have had some effect, they probably cannot entirely explain the trend in question.

Jackson, R. *Mean Scores for PSAT and PSAT/NMSQT Junior Candidates.* December 20, 1976, 5 pages.
Gives the numbers of students taking the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test and the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test/National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test and their mean scores for the period 1959 through 1976. The implications of these results in relation to changes in the candidate group are discussed.

Jackson, R. *A Summary of SAT Score Statistics for College Board Candidates.* December 1975 (revised October 1976), 20 pages.
Summaries of SAT score statistics for test candidates are presented for students grouped according to testing years (for 1956-57 to 1975-76) and for students grouped according to high school classes (from 1966-67 to 1975-76). For recent years, mean scores for geographical regions and for students grouped according to selected responses to the Student Descriptive Questionnaire are also presented.

Jackson, R. *Trends in Mean SAT Scores for Students from the High School Classes of 1971-72 and 1975-76 Belonging to Selected School and College Groups.* January 1977, 9 pages.
Data are presented on trends in SAT performance from the year 1971-72 to 1975-76 for students who (a) attended certain selected high schools for which group summary reports had been produced through the College Board summary report service, or (b) had their scores reported to colleges in groups similarly formed for summary reporting purposes. All school and college groups for which reports were produced both in 1971-72 and 1975-76 are included. The great majority of these groups exhibited declines in mean SAT scores over this period. With only a few exceptions, those groups showing increases in either SAT-verbal or SAT-mathematical mean scores had substantially smaller numbers of students in the more recent year.

Modu, C., and Stern, J. *The Stability of the SAT-Verbal Score Scale.* September 1976, 35 pages.
This study was designed to assess the stability of the score scale between 1963 and 1973 for the verbal sections of the SAT. In a previous study, scores on two old forms were equated to a 1973 form and, through that form, to the College Board scale by means of sets of items common to the new and old forms. This earlier study suggested that the SAT scale had shifted upward by an average of 14 points on the verbal sections and 17 points on the mathematical sections.

In the present study, pairs of 1963 and 1973 forms of the SAT-V were administered in counterbalanced order to spaced samples of the same group, with each candidate taking a 1963 and a 1973 form. The obtained scores were used to place the 1973 scores on the reporting scale used for the 1963 form. The experimentally derived scores on the 1963 scale were then compared with their corresponding scores on the 1973 scale for candidates of the same ability levels in order to estimate the degree of scale shift.

The findings of the present study confirm an upward scale drift which gave the 1973 candidate group an average of 8 to 10 points higher than they would have earned had these experimental equating results rather than the operational equating results been used in reporting the 1973 scores. The scale drift observed for the present study was not uniform over the extent of the scale; it was found to increase as scores decreased from 600 to 200. Little scale drift was noticed over the 10-year span for scores of 650 and above. Based on the evidence from this study it would appear that the reported declines in mean SAT-verbal scores from 1963 to 1973 are about 8 to 10 points smaller than they would have been had the scale been completely stable.

Nelson, J. E. *A Review of Data Available regarding Family Income and Financial Aid Characteristics of Students.* October 1976, 7 pages.

Greatly expanded programs of financial aid based on need have made it possible for large numbers of low-income students to attend college. Since test scores have high correlation with family income, has the increase in low-income students taking the SAT produced the decline in mean scores? This review of available College Board candidate data, income distributions of entering freshmen, percentage of age groups in college by income levels, and impact of student aid on low-income enrollment shows an increased percentage of students coming from lower-income families before 1972, but no significant change since that time.

Reed, J. S. *Available Evidence on Public Attitudes toward Education.* June 1976 (Draft), 31 pages.

Questions dealing with education asked by American survey organizations since 1936 are examined, and over 60 taken to illustrate (1) changes in public opinion since 1960 that might have altered students' evaluations of college going or academic excellence, and (2) changes prior to 1960 that might have affected the quality of preparation for college.

Tables summarize responses to the following broad groups of questions: satisfaction with public schools and personnel and with college and university personnel; adequacy of homework in the public schools, of time spent in school, of discipline in the public schools, of the public school curriculum, of treatment of students with differing ability; desirability of nationwide testing programs; and evaluation of the teaching profession.

It is found that there was a period of criticism of all levels of schooling during the late 1950s, increasing satisfaction with schools and colleges during the 1960s, and a renewed dissatisfaction that starts at the end of the sixties. It would probably be impossible to reconstruct opinion changes between 1950 and 1970 in sufficient detail to relate them to changes in SAT scores.

A catalog of survey questions dealing with education, other than the questions analyzed in the report, is appended.

——A supplement to Reed's paper, consisting of excerpts from the *Eighth Annual Survey of the Public's Attitudes toward the Public Schools.* A project jointly conducted by The Gallup Poll and the Charles F. Kettering Foundation. Princeton, New Jersey: Public Opinion Surveys, Spring 1976.

A significant drop in the public's rating of the schools was recorded between 1974 and 1975, but this decline leveled off between 1975 and 1976. Adults perceive the following as the major problems of the local public schools: lack of discipline; integration, segregation, and busing; lack of proper financial support; poor curriculum; use of drugs; difficulty of getting "good" teachers; parents' lack of interest; size of school or classes or both; school board policies; pupils' lack of interest.

The public believes that the decline in national test scores in recent years means that the quality of education is declining; it would like more attention paid to basic skills and to discipline in the schools in order to counteract the perceived decline of quality in the schools. It inclines, however, to place blame on parents rather than preponderantly on the schools.

Rosenthal, E., and Beaton, A. E. *Annotated Bibliography*. December 1, 1975 (revised April 28, 1976), 17 pages.

More than 30 reports and publications pertaining to national declines in abilities are cited, and most are annotated. The citations in this bibliography include evidence available at the time the panel began its work.

Schrader, W. B. *Distribution of SAT Scores to Colleges as an Indicator of Changes in the SAT Candidate Population*. September 1976, 14 pages.

This study identifies trends in the extent to which SAT candidates were applying to various groups of colleges in 1960-61, 1966-67, and 1973-74. Colleges were grouped on the basis of: (1) the classification developed by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, (2) the test or tests they required applicants to take, and (3) state and region. Results provide pertinent data on two main topics: (a) widening access to higher education and (b) acceptance of either SAT or ACT scores for admissions by some colleges. Although the interpretation of the data is complicated, especially by the lack of knowledge about the relation between college choice and taking the SAT, the results offer some reason to believe that both these factors resulted in changes in test taking between 1966-67 and 1971-72 that could have contributed to the SAT score decline. They do not, however, provide a numerical estimate of the size of the effects.

Schramm, W. *Television and the Test Scores*. August 1976, 31 pages.

There is no conclusive evidence as yet that television has been a sufficient cause for decline in test scores, although it may be one of several elements in a complex causal system. The major studies show that television viewing, after the early school years, tends to be associated with lower-than-average achievement, although the relative extent to which viewing affects achievement or unsatisfactory achievement encourages children to take refuge in television is not fully understood. Television reduces reading time, social interaction time, and the opportunity to practice certain skills necessary to academic excellence. It tends to reduce the average level of intellectual stimulation available to a child after the age of 9 or so. The trend of the evidence is that television viewing patterns belong to a group of strong variables that interact with each other and with school (and, therefore, test) performance, probably with negative effect.

Stern, J. *Selected Percentiles for Scholastic Aptitude Test Scores (1966-67 through 1975-76).* January 1977, 1 page.

This table presents the ninetieth, seventy-fifth, fiftieth, twenty-fifth, and tenth percentile groupings for SAT Verbal and Mathematical scores reported in the 10-year period between 1966-67 and 1975-76. A testing year is defined as extending from September to August; data are collected without regard to level of preparation or the number of times an individual student was tested during the defined year.

Stern, J. *Table of SAT and Achievement Test Scores for Samples of Candidates Taking Achievement Tests 1966-67 to 1975-76.* January 1977, 2 pages.

The table provides the SAT and the Achievement Test means and standard deviations for samples of candidates taking each of the 15 Achievement Tests offered in the Admissions Testing Program battery during the period 1966-67 to 1975-76. The samples, drawn annually through 1971-72 and biennially thereafter, provide estimates of SAT means for each Achievement Test population.

Wharton, Y. *List of Hypotheses Advanced to Explain the SAT Score Decline.* December 3, 1975 (revised February 20, 1976), 8 pages.

A listing of hypotheses to explain the SAT score decline (advanced in letters to the College Board, to the Advisory Panel, in magazine articles, and in newspaper stories) is presented and categorized using a four-part classification scheme: changes in the schools, changes in society, changes in the population, and problems with the tests. The first major category (changes in the schools) is further broken down into hypotheses relating to curriculum, institutional policies, teachers, and students. The second major category (changes in society) lists hypotheses related to family, religion, civil rights, crisis of values, national priorities, economic, labor movement in education, and technological changes.

Winter, D. G. *Motivational Factors in the SAT Score Decline.* October 1976 (Draft), 23 pages.

The paper examines the research evidence and theory about three human social motives that could be expected to play some role in test performance and academic functioning: the motives for achievement, for affiliation, and for power. It also considers the possibility of a "motivational overload." Broad cultural trends (i.e., post-Sputnik emphasis on academic achievement, revolt of the counterculture, crisis of values in Vietnam and Watergate) and related specific changes in the educational system ("open," "alternative," and "humanistic" education) may have had direct and indirect effects on motives. Some of the hypotheses suggest that actual motive levels went up or down with corresponding effects on academic performance. Others suggest the ways in which social forces may have changed beliefs about the nature and value of academic work, beliefs that may interact with relatively constant motive levels to produce behavior changes.

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Sample Questions from the SAT

Verbal Questions

The ability to understand what you read and the extent of your vocabulary are important for successful academic performance in college. The SAT tests these abilities using four types of questions: antonyms and analogies, which yield a vocabulary subscore, and sentence completion and reading comprehension, which yield a reading subscore. The directions that are shown below for each type of question are the same as the ones that appear in the test itself.

Vocabulary

Antonyms (opposites)
Antonyms test the quality and extent of your vocabulary.

Directions: Each question below consists of a word in capital letters, followed by five lettered words or phrases. Choose the word or phrase that is most nearly opposite in meaning to the word in capital letters. Since some of the questions require you to distinguish fine shades of meaning, consider all the choices before deciding which is best.

> ***Example:***
> **GOOD: (A) sour (B) bad (C) red (D) hot (E) ugly** Ⓐ ● Ⓒ Ⓓ Ⓔ

Practice Questions:

1. BABBLE: (A) irrigation (B) pollution (C) meaningful speech (D) useful object (E) helpful person

8. RECTITUDE: (A) deliberation (B) laziness (C) prejudice (D) laxity of morals (E) weakness of intellect

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Analogies
Analogies test your understanding of relationships between words and ideas. You are asked to recognize pairs that are similar or parallel in nature.

Directions: Each question below consists of a related pair of words or phrases, followed by five lettered pairs of words or phrases. Select the lettered pair that best expresses a relationship similar to that expressed in the original pair.

> ***Example:***
> **YAWN:BOREDOM:: (A) dream:sleep (B) anger:madness (C) smile:amusement (D) face:expression (E) impatience:rebellion** Ⓐ Ⓑ ● Ⓓ Ⓔ

First, establish the relationship between the two capitalized words, considering for each word only the sense that applies. For example, the fact that you yawn when you're sleepy is irrelevant in the example above. Roughly stated, the relationship between the first two words is "a yawn indicates boredom." The correct answer is (C), because "a smile indicates amusement." If more than one of the choices seems to fit the relationship you have established, restate it more precisely. The correct answer to the sample question is more obvious if the relationship is expressed, as "a yawn is a movement of facial muscles indicating boredom."

Practice Questions:

10. CHOIR:SINGERS:: (A) victory:soldiers (B) class:teachers (C) crowd:protesters (D) challenge:duelists (E) orchestra:musicians

16. BALLAST:STABILITY:: (A) menu:appetite (B) buoy:steering (C) spice:flavor (D) grade:education (E) eclipse:clarity

Reading Comprehension

Sentence Completion
This type of question asks you to select words or phrases that are consistent in style and logic with other elements in the sentence.

Directions: Each question below has one or two blank spaces, each blank indicating that something has been omitted. Beneath the sentence are five lettered words or sets of words. Choose the word or set of words that best fits the meaning of the sentence as a whole.

> ***Example:***
> **Although the publicity has been ——, the film itself is intelligent, well-acted, handsomely produced, and altogether ——.**
> **(A) extensive . . arbitrary**
> **(B) tasteless . . respectable**
> **(C) sophisticated . . amateurish**
> **(D) risqué . . crude**
> **(E) perfect . . spectacular** Ⓐ ● Ⓒ Ⓓ Ⓔ

The correct answer should involve two words that are more or less opposite in meaning, as the word although suggests that the publicity misrepresented the film. Another clue to the correct answer is that the second word should fit in context with the words "intelligent, well-acted, handsomely produced." Choices (A), (D), and (E) are not opposites. Choice (C) can not be the correct answer even though the words in it are nearly opposites, because if the film is intelligent, well-acted, and handsomely produced, it is not amateurish. Also only choice (B), when inserted in the sentence, produces a logical statement.

Practice Questions:

19. Intricately carved and beautifully proportioned, the priceless sculpture was —— the work of a ——.
(A) undoubtedly . . dilettante
(B) indelibly . . forger
(C) demonstrably . . bungler
(D) unmistakably . . master
(E) paradoxically . . perfectionist

Reading Passages

The reading passages are taken from a variety of fields, and reading comprehension is tested at several levels. Some of the questions test your understanding of what has been stated directly; others test your ability to interpret and analyze what you have read. Be sure to read the questions carefully so that you understand exactly what is being asked.

Directions: Read the following passage and then answer the questions on the basis of what is stated or implied in the passage.

The behavioral sciences are making rapid strides in the understanding, prediction, and control of behavior. In important ways we know how to select individuals who will exhibit certain behaviors and to establish conditions in groups which will lead to various predictable group behaviors; in animals our ability to understand, predict, and control goes even further, possibly foreshadowing future steps in relation to man.

If your reaction is the same as mine, then you will have found that the potentials of this young science are somewhat frightening. For all its present immaturity, behavioral science may contain awesome possibilities. If some individual or group had the power to exploit this science, it would be a nightmare of manipulation. Potential troublemakers could be discovered and dealt with before they became such. Morale could be improved or lowered and behavior could be influenced by appeals to motives of which the individual was unconscious. Admittedly this is wild fantasy, but it is not an impossible fantasy.

Some of you may point out that only a few of the findings I have mentioned have actually been put to use in any way that significantly affects society, and that for the most part these studies are important only to the behavioral scientist but have no serious impact on our culture. I agree with this point. The behavioral sciences at the present time are at somewhat the same stage as the physical sciences were several generations ago. For instance in 1900, the public believed the science of aeronautics to be of little importance and did not anticipate the significant effects that aeronautics would have on culture. They preferred to use their common sense, which told them that man could not possibly fly in a contraption which was heavier than air.

However, the public attitude toward physical science is quite different today. The public is ready to believe any prediction the physical scientist might make. When science predicted a satellite would be launched into space, very few voices were raised in disbelief.

There is every reason to believe that the same sequence of events will occur in the behavioral sciences. First, the public ignores or views with disbelief; then, as it discovers that the findings of a science are more dependable than theories based on common sense, it begins to use them; eventually, the widespread use of these findings creates a tremendous demand. Finally, the development of the science spirals upward at an ever-increasing rate. Consequently, even though the findings of the behavioral sciences are not widely used today, there is every likelihood that they will be widely used tomorrow.

Practice Questions:

26. The author suggests that the next change in the public's attitude toward behavioral science will lead the public to
(A) ignore the findings
(B) increase the use of the findings
(C) disbelieve the findings
(D) use these findings against each other
(E) lose interest in the findings

27. The tone of this passage can best be described as
(A) condescending (B) humble (C) insipid
(D) admonitory (E) inspiring

Mathematical Questions

The subject matter prerequisites for the SAT-mathematical questions include arithmetic and do not extend beyond a year of high school algebra and the geometry that is usually taught in the elementary and junior high years. The arithmetic includes the four basic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; properties of odd and even integers; percent; and averages. The algebra includes linear equations, simple quadratic equations, factoring, and exponents, but not the quadratic formula, fractional or negative exponents, or logarithms. The geometry includes the properties associated with parallel lines and the informal measurement-related concepts of area, perimeter, volume, the Pythagorean Theorem, and angle measure in degrees. Knowledge of special triangles such as isosceles, equilateral, 30°-60°-90° is also assumed. (See question 20.) Unusual notation is used only when it is explicitly defined for a particular question. (See question 17.)

Certain questions emphasize nonroutine problem-solving approaches. For example, the correct solution to problem 15 . . . can be easily obtained once an appropriate nonroutine approach is discovered, but could be obtained only at the cost of much time and thought if a routine approach were used. When you take the SAT, however, do not spend too much time searching for a nonroutine solution: If you cannot think of such a solution, try a routine approach or go on to the next question.

Two kinds of multiple-choice questions appear in the mathematical portion of the SAT:

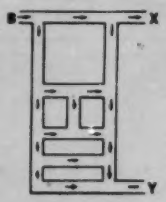
1. Standard multiple-choice questions (approximately two-thirds of the test)

2. Quantitative comparison questions (approximately one-third of the test)

Each of the quantitative comparison questions presents two quantities to be compared, one in Column A and the other in Column B. . . . . In general, this type of question takes less time to answer, involves less reading, and requires somewhat less computation than the usual multiple-choice mathematics question. In deciding on your answer, you must use concepts of greater than (>), less than (<), and equal to (=) to decide which choice is correct. Please analyze carefully example 27, . . . as this illustrates comparisons in which the relationship cannot be determined. . . .

Practice Questions:

1. The number which is one hundred less than one million is
(A) 990,900 (B) 900,900 (C) 999,990
(D) 909,900 (E) 1,000,900



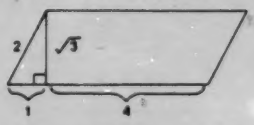
15. The figure above represents a network of one-way traffic lanes. If the traffic divides equally at intersections where there are alternative directions and in one hour 512 cars enter the traffic pattern at point B, how many of these cars will leave via Y?
(A) 128 (B) 192 (C) 256 (D) 320 (E) 384

Question 17 refers to the following definition.

For all positive integers x, $\boxed{x} = x$ If x is even

$\boxed{x} = x + 1$ If x is odd

17. $\boxed{19} + \boxed{21} =$
(A) 38 (B) 39 (C) 40 (D) 41 (E) 42



20. The figure above shows a piece of paper in the shape of a parallelogram with measurements as indicated. If the paper is tacked at its center to a large flat surface and then rotated about its center, the points covered by the paper will be a circular region of diameter
(A) $\sqrt{5}$ (B) 2 (C) 5 (D) $\sqrt{28}$ (E) $\sqrt{29}$

Directions: Each of the following questions consists of two quantities, one in Column A and one in Column B. You are to compare the two quantities and on the answer sheet blacken space

A if the quantity in Column A is greater;
B if the quantity in Column B is greater;
C if the two quantities are equal;
D if the relationship cannot be determined from the information given.

Notes:

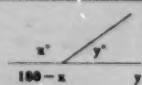
1. In certain questions, information concerning one or both of the quantities to be compared is centered above the two columns.

2. A symbol that appears in both columns represents the same thing in Column A as it does in Column B.

3. Letters such as x, n, and k stand for real numbers.

4. Since there are only four choices, NEVER MARK (E).

Examples:

	Column A	Column B	Answers
E1.	2×6	$2 + 6$	● (B) (C) (D) (E)
E2.	 $180 - x$	y	(A) (B) ● (D) (E)
E3.	$p - q$	$q - p$	(A) (B) (C) ● (E)

	Column A	Column B
	$5x + 3y = 22$	
27.	x	y

Answer Key

Question number	Correct answer	Percentage of 450-scorers who answered correctly
Verbal		
1	C	96
8	D	23
10	E	93
16	C	39
19	D	93
26	B	80
27	D	20
Mathematical		
1	D	90
15	E	22
17	E	47
20	E	20
27	D	39

Advisory Panel on the Scholastic Aptitude Test Score Decline

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Consultants

Edmund J. Farrell, Associate Executive Secretary, National Council of Teachers of English (chairman, College Board English Discipline Committee)
Alfred L. Putnam, Professor of Mathematics, University of Chicago (chairman, College Board Mathematics Discipline Committee)

Mr. WIRTZ. I compliment you, sir, on looking into what seems to me the single most critical national problem in this country today.

Senator EAGLETON. The hearing is now adjourned.

[Whereupon, at 12:05 p.m. the hearing was concluded.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 28, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES
OF THE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Washington, D.C.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 9:35 a.m., in room 457, Russell Senate Office Building, Senator Thomas F. Eagleton presiding pro tempore.

Present: Senators Eagleton and Pell.

Also present: Senator Javits.

OPENING STATEMENT OF SENATOR EAGLETON

Senator EAGLETON. Good morning, ladies and gentlemen.

Today marks the fourth day of hearings by the Senate Education, Arts and Humanities Subcommittee into the question of basic skills achievement in our Nation's schools.

Polls have shown that 65 percent of the parents in this country do not believe that their children are receiving adequate instruction in basic skills. Translated into numbers, this indicates that the parents of 32½ million children do not think their children are receiving a good basic education.

In response to this widespread dissatisfaction, 36 States have implemented some form of minimal competency testing. Last year, Congress approved a new Federal program of assistance to State and local school districts to beef up their basic skills programs.

To date, the subcommittee has heard a wide range of testimony—from those who say there really is no problem to those who rather sweepingly condemn our entire educational system. Much of the testimony has focused on the decline in skills at the secondary school level, and has emphasized reports by the National Assessment of Educational Progress, the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, and the Iowa Test, all of which show reading gains in the early grades.

Today, we are pleased to have the top Federal officials charged with the awesome task of administering the vast bulk of Federal education programs.

In April of 1977, a National Institute of Education Survey identified 44 Federal programs involved with basic skills. Thirty-eight of these programs are under the authority of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Now, for the first time, under the new basic skills authority enacted last year, grantees would be allowed, indeed required, to pool resources under this program with other local, State and

Federal resources. This is the key to the success of title II. This new title alone can never reverse the downward educational trend. But it can lead to the kind of combined effort and commitment by all public and private agencies and individuals which we need to get the job done. What we seek to explore today are the ideas of the administration as to how best the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and specifically the Education Division within the Department, can provide leadership to improve academic excellence at all levels of education.

We are delighted to have as our principal witness this morning the Secretary of HEW, Mr. Califano, accompanied by members of his staff.

I know the Secretary has other commitments this morning. So we will receive his prepared testimony, have perhaps one or two questions to propound to him, and then subsequent questions to other members of his staff in the educational area.

We welcome you, Mr. Secretary, and you may proceed.

STATEMENT OF HON. JOSEPH A. CALIFANO, JR., SECRETARY, DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE, ACCOMPANIED BY DR. ERNEST BOYER, U.S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION AND DR. PATRICIA A. GRAHAM, DIRECTOR, NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

Secretary CALIFANO. Mr. Chairman, I am accompanied by Dr. Patricia Graham, who is head of the National Institute of Education and, Dr. Ernest Boyer, who is Commissioner of Education.

I am delighted to be here. As you know, 14 months ago I appeared before this subcommittee to testify on the administration's proposals to reauthorize and strengthen the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Since then, with your strong leadership, the Congress has passed, and the President has signed, the Education Amendments of 1978.

That legislation contains provisions dealing directly with this subject. I think, Mr. Chairman, every one of us owes a debt of gratitude to you and your leadership in the field of educational policy and, particularly, in the area which we are addressing this morning.

A principal goal of the 1978 amendments is, as you know, improving basic skills. Throughout the legislation there is a clear commitment to the principle that every person should master the basic skills of reading, writing and mathematics.

One reason for this is that all over our Nation parents, legislators, and educators are demanding that more attention be devoted to basic skills.

Amid reports of falling test scores and semiliterate high school graduates it may seem no wonder that public confidence in our educational system is waning. In the past 3 years, as you know, the number of Americans rating their public schools as good or excellent has fallen almost 25 percent. Last year, 83 percent of persons polled favored a return to basics, a return to reading, writing, and arithmetic, taught in more orderly classrooms.

There is an insistent message for all of us in this intense concern about American education: The American people, in return for the billions of tax dollars they spend on education, in return for the

great hope they invest in their childrens' future, are demanding that a basic level of competence, a set of minimum skills, be transmitted by our elementary and secondary schools to their children.

Much of the blame for sagging standards is misplaced. But the demand for improvement is not unreasonable, and we in the Federal Government are doing several things in response to it:

New provisions in title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act will target funds to the most needy children, who are most likely to need special academic help.

A new strategy for our adult education program gives priority to persons who are functionally illiterate.

A new requirement in the bilingual education program focuses funds on the students most in need of English language training.

But our commitment to the basic skills is best exemplified in the new title II of the 1978 amendments. Title II requires the Secretary of HEW to establish effective and efficient procedures for coordinating all education programs that promote basic skills. It also provides funds to support outstanding programs that promote basic skills, State and local programs involving not only school officials and community agencies but parents and students, as well.

Today I will address briefly some of the fundamental challenges that the country faces in the area of basic skills and describe how HEW can respond to these challenges.

Then Commissioner of Education, Dr. Ernest Boyer, and the Director of the National Institute of Education, Dr. Patricia Graham, will discuss in more detail the Federal role and strategy in promoting high quality instruction in the basic skills. They will also review what actions are being taken to launch the new basic skills improvement program. Since Lyndon Johnson signed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 we have made great strides, particularly in moving toward our goal of equal educational opportunity.

More and more people are completing high school. In 1960, 41 percent of all people 25 years or older had completed 4 or more years of high school. By contrast, in 1976, 64 percent had done so. The increase for black people was even more dramatic. In 1960, only 21.7 percent of black people 25 years or older had completed 4 or more years of high school. By 1976 that figure had more than doubled to 47 percent.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me break in there to interpose a comment on my part.

We are in an era now where many people want to question the goals and the ambitions of, say, the New Deal, Fair Deal, New Frontier, and Great Society, and other people just want to discount that whole thrust of modern American history, as if to say it was all bad, and the new wave of Proposition 13, et cetera, that none of the programs of the past work. I am not saying all of them work.

That one paragraph that you just read, in terms of number of people graduating from high school, and especially the doubling of the percent of black graduates that took place in this era of the sixties and the seventies, I am not saying that Kennedy and Johnson can take total claim for that having been achieved, but much of what has been done in the recent past has been very, very

commendable, and I do not think we should lose sight of that in the new Proposition 13 era.

Secretary CALIFANO. I agree 100 percent, and that is true also with respect to post-secondary schools. In 1976, 34 percent of the 18- to 24-year-old population went to college. In 1965, only 27 percent did. The gains among minorities are dramatic. In 1976, 60 percent more black people went to college than in 1968.

Again, in my judgment those reflect in large measure actions of the Great Society legislation and of Congress in student aid programs, and upward bound poverty programs.

But in spite of these and other achievements, there remain issues of deep concern to all of us who care about education. Test scores show increases for the early grades of school in reading and mathematics, as you have noted. These increases in achievement in the early grades are probably a consequence of the greater emphasis that has recently been placed on early childhood education. But disturbingly, most standardized test scores in reading show declines in average test scores after the fourth grade.

Moreover, each year from 1963 to 1976, scores on the verbal and mathematics scholastic aptitude tests have declined. During those 13 years, the overall decline was nearly 50 points on the verbal test, and more than 30 points on mathematics. The relatively greater decline in reading scores may reflect a failure on the part of parents to teach and practice reading in the home, since to some degree reading is learned more at home than is mathematics.

A survey of the National Assessment of Educational Progress showed that in 1975, more than 12 out of every 100 17-year-old high school students were functionally illiterate; only 10 out of every 100 could calculate a simple taxi fare.

Only 34 percent of the 17-year-olds could determine the most economical size of a product.

Only 53 percent knew that each State had two Senators.

Only 53 percent were aware that the President does not appoint Members of Congress.

These statistics of declining competence are daily and sadly confirmed by stories we read in the newspapers.

Here in Washington, for example, a high school graduate was rejected by a local university; his scores on tests fell far below the minimum range for acceptable applicants. The story made headlines—because the young man was the valedictorian of his high school class.

In San Francisco, a youngster sued school officials—because upon graduation from high school in 1972, he discovered that his reading skills were those of a fifth grader.

No one concerned about the future of our society can afford to ignore or to minimize these disturbing facts. Every one of these statistics and anecdotes is a cause for dismay—and a call to action. We who are supposed to be leaders concerned with educational policy need to lead—by resisting the flood of mediocrity that daily threatens to engulf our society, and by helping point the way to the firm dry ground of excellence.

The way to do that does not lie in assigning sole blame for declining academic performance on the Nation's educators. America's teachers are deeply concerned about the decline in basic skills.

Like the rest of us, they search for solutions. It is altogether unfair to place all responsibility upon them. American society, for better or worse, has changed in various and complicated ways that challenge excellence in the basic skills.

By age 18, most young people have spent as much time or more time watching television as in the classroom—and all of that time is not spent watching "Sesame Street" by and large. I need mention only this one striking fact to suggest that there are other reasons for the decline in test scores—and that many of those reasons lie outside the schoolhouse door.

Senator EAGLETON. I will interpose a comment there.

Our third day of hearings, a week or so ago, we had Doctor Giamatti, the new president of Yale University, and Mr. Willard Wirtz, former Secretary of Labor, and Chairman of the committee that inquired into why the decline in SAT scores.

One issue that they disagreed on—a few things they agreed on, most or many [illegible] of the sharpest areas of disagreement, so it would appear [illegible] on the influence of television.

Doctor Gi[illegible]atti was reluctant to point a finger of blame at television and the captivating, mesmerizing influence that it has on young people.

I can attest to that by way of firsthand, having a 19-year-old son and a 15-year-old daughter who, in their earlier years, sat glued, transfixed to the tube, starting when they came home from school, and Saturday morning they were there about 9 to noon, watching idiotic Saturday morning garbage.

Doctor Giamatti did not want to point the finger of blame because really that does not accomplish much, but he sort of downplayed the negative influence of television.

Mr. Wirtz disagreed, and his views were somewhat more like mine, more cautiously expressed perhaps, that television has had a great negative impact on the academic and intellectual skills of today's young people.

Are there any studies—I will refer to this later on, to Doctor Boyer or Doctor Graham—are there some studies out there that can either firm up my negative feelings towards television, or am I just speaking subjectively as one parent?

Secretary CALIFANO. There are some studies, and when Doctor Graham testifies, she will deal with that.

The crucial question is what the Federal Government can do to help. I think we can do a great deal. But let me emphasize at the outset one important point: The primary responsibility for ensuring that children develop strong fundamental skills rests at the State and local level and in the home. We in the Federal Government are only a limited partner with State and local educational agencies. The major funding, direction, skill and, most importantly, commitment to solve these problems must come at the local level. One of the most important findings during the past 15 years of research in education is the importance of local initiatives and local commitments in solving the problem of illiteracy.

Over the past few years, State and local agencies have responded vigorously to the challenge of improving the level of basic skills, as you noted earlier. Today, 36 State departments of education have

launched systematic efforts to measure and encourage minimum competency levels in reading, writing, and mathematics.

In 1975, only four States had such guidelines. Various city school systems throughout the Nation, from Oakland to New York, routinely publish test results and sponsor special enrichment efforts in schools where children are having difficulty in learning the basic skills.

Not all the States or communities are doing all that could be done. But the concern throughout the Nation is very strong—people are actively looking for ways to ensure that their children will be competent in reading, writing, and computing.

When I was in Houston recently, I was deeply impressed by a local program there called Fail Safe. This is a program, Mr. Chairman, in which the city and city schools used television advertisements and bus advertisements, with a picture of a kid saying, "don't fail me."

They have gotten parents involved in committing themselves to turn off the television set for at least 2 hours every weekday night, when the kids have homework to do, and they are involved with their own children.

It is not merely a commitment to serve on advisory committees, but a commitment to work with their own children, to do homework with them. As a result, through the first three grades the children are reading at third grade level, despite the fact that Houston has a 70 percent minority school population. And it may be the only school system in the country with that level of disadvantaged population that has children reading at the third grade level in the third grade.

Similarly, all across the Nation, the Reverend Jesse Jackson's "Push for Excellence" is at work. It is Jesse Jackson's straightforward thesis that in large part, one learns to read as one learns to play basketball well, by endless practice and hard work.

In that program, parents, children and teachers commit themselves to specific educational goals, and they work together to achieve them.

One of the important things is repetition and hard work.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Jackson will be a witness of this Committee in Chicago within the next few weeks.

Secretary CALIFANO. I think you will find him very interesting. We have provided some funds for him.

The importance of time is one element in the development of basic skills. We financed a study by the National Academy, Mr. Chairman, on means other than testing to improve basic skills achievement, and a conclusion of that study, one in particular, is fascinating:

The panel concluded that "on task" attention time—time actually spent on scholastic tasks—has declined in the past two decades. Some studies suggest that even in "relatively good" schools, only about 60 to 70 percent of the time in a classroom is related to instruction—and only 30 percent of that period is in fact spent on scholastic work. Since, in our better institutions, as little as 18 percent of time in school is actually spent on scholastic work, it is little wonder that learning levels fall beneath our expectations across the Nation. Although the panel carefully notes that the

findings are subject to qualifications and that increasing time on tasks is not a panacea, the basic point is an important one for all of us to consider.

All this grassroots activity and concern are clearly crucial elements in the effort to emphasize and improve basic skills. But the Federal role in improving basic skills, though limited, is nonetheless important. We, at HEW, have brought to bear a variety of resources on the problems of teaching basic skills.

Foremost, as I have said, is Title II of the 1978 Amendments whose fundamental purpose is to provide Federal assistance to State and local education agencies to help them organize their efforts to improve instruction of the basic skills. Title II will further encourage State and local education agencies to develop basic skills programs, and expand the use of television and other technologies in teaching basic skills.

I would also like to note the success of one program funded under Title II—the inexpensive book distribution program. This immensely popular program has distributed over 11 million books to nearly 3 million youngsters in the past few years.

Beyond actual legislated programs we are also taking several administrative steps:

The Office of Education identified two activities in the area of basic skills that have yielded, and will continue to yield, tangible results. By October 1979, OE will have:

Helped at least 20 States to develop and launch statewide basic skills proficiency assessment plans;

For the first time, the Office of Education is requiring right-to-read projects to measure students' progress.

Doctor Boyer will speak at greater length about those projects.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me ask Doctor Boyer, because I am making notes of what I want you to explain, Doctor Boyer, later in this hearing, whether there is a difference, more than just semantics, between the basic skills proficiency assessment plan and competency testing. Are they one and the same, or are they different?

Hold that for later.

Secretary CALIFANO. The Head Start program is conducting a research and demonstration project in basic skills. Last year, 17 Head Start programs were awarded funds for pilot projects to help preschool children begin developing aptitudes for speaking, reading, writing, mathematics, science, and problem solving. In the fall of 1979, this project will be expanded to 30 communities nationwide.

I might also note that we are changing the standards by which to assess the Head Start program. Head Start will now include, in addition to socialization, if you will, of the children, digital skill, color identification, numerical identification, addition, subtraction, and the alphabet.

When we say there are 400,000 children in the Head Start program, what does that mean? Because currently they range from babysitting operations to very educational programs.

As we seek to develop better ways to improve the basic skills of students, there is one area in which the Federal role is truly extensive—the responsibility to provide major support for research on schooling and the process of education.

In a few minutes Doctor Graham from the National Institute of Education will discuss the problems in basic skills that have been identified by past research. She will tell you how NIE is examining these issues. I wish simply to touch upon one aspect of the agency's work—NIE's testing studies.

Last year, during a National Conference on Achievement Testing and Basic Skills convened by HEW, it became apparent that although tests are powerful elements of our education system, they can be misused. Out of that conference came an important NIE testing initiative; it includes research, improved technical assistance, and better methodologies for evaluating tests and their results, and remedial followup.

NIE has also, as a result of congressional action, assumed responsibility for the National Assessment of Educational Progress, which is one of the most important sources of knowledge about national trends in student achievement.

The National Assessment is a periodic survey of the knowledge, skills and attitudes of a carefully selected, representative sample of this Nation's 9 to 13, and 17-year-olds and young adults, 26 to 35, in 10 different subject areas. Over the past 10 years, the Assessment has alerted many of the Nation's educators to the problems we are discussing today.

The National Assessment can serve as an invaluable tool for citizens and policymakers at all levels who want to know what is going on in our schools.

We will be going out for competitive bids for the National Assessment within the next few days. We have already had indications, 300 expressions of interest. I think going through the bidding process will provide the data at a lower cost.

We in the Federal Government can help support worthy educational programs. But research confirms what intuition tells us: That only if teachers, administrators, and parents work together will success crown our efforts.

The key to excellence in education is not in any Federal program to support education, however good that program may be. The key is not even in the hands of our teachers, however committed and diligent they may be. The key can only be found in a widespread national commitment to high standards, to hard work and to academic rigor. Not only educators, but parents and their children need to make that commitment. To do otherwise—to blame teachers for the laziness of students; to succumb to the temptations of ease and self-indulgence that abound in our society; to give way to the false and patronizing idea that democracy means the lowest common denominator; to do any of these things, or all of them, will only guarantee a continuing downward slide in academic standards, in test scores—and in the tone of our national life.

I believe, Mr. Chairman, we can avoid that. I believe we can, if we try hard enough, turn the debate about basic skills into a national renaissance of excellence in our schools and colleges.

It was the work of the last two decades to insure broader access to America's schools and colleges. That work must continue unabated. But now it is time to begin another effort: an effort to insure that having gained access, our citizens are rigorously challenged to make the most of their opportunities.

I believe these hearings can be a worthy contribution to that effort.

Our Agency will contribute to that effort, Mr. Chairman, and I believe the amendments that you have sponsored and obtained in title I legislation last year, will also contribute to that effort.

Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you for a very excellent statement, Mr. Secretary.

Because I am so impressed with it, I am going to reread, for the purpose of emphasis, page 21 of your testimony, which I think is as good and clear a statement on this subject matter as I have read from any source.

You just testified:

> The key to excellence in education is not in any Federal program to support education, however good that program may be. The key is not even in the hands of our teachers, however committed and diligent they may be. The key can only be found in a widespread national commitment to high standards, to hard work and to academic rigor. Not only educators, but parents and their children need to make that commitment. To do otherwise—to blame teachers for the laziness of students; to succumb to the temptations of ease and self-indulgence that abound in our society; to give way to the false and patronizing idea that democracy means the lowest common denominator; to do any of these things or all of them, will only guarantee a continuing downward slide in academic standards, in test scores—and in the tone of our national life.

I said to Dr. Giamatti the other day when he testified that unwittingly he gave me the basis for my 1979 commencement speech.

I now have two 1979 commencement speeches, and page 21 will be a part of it. It was excellent. I just have a couple of questions for you, Mr. Secretary, and then we will move on to your colleagues.

As I indicated in my opening remarks, much of the testimony heard by the subcommittee has focused on the decline of skills at the secondary school level. When we look at the history of Federal education programs, most of the emphasis has been in the early grades and, in fact, restricted use of part A funds to pre-elementary and elementary schools.

Would you suggest we shift emphasis in the new basic skills program to place greater resources in secondary schools?

Mr. CALIFANO. I think we need greater resources, and I think it is not only with respect to the program you mention. There hasn't been enough money in the title I program to reach all the children who are eligible. What has happened, by and large, is that the Government and the school districts have determined that it was more important to invest the available money in the early years than in the later ones. Title I, in effect, doesn't exist in thousands of high schools in this country that are loaded with 50 to 60 percent title I children, because not enough funds have been allocated for the program.

Senator EAGLETON. In the Federal education program $10.8 billion on education; that is across the board, and only one-half of 1 percent is used for educational research and development. This compares with a total health expenditure of about $49 billion, about 7 percent of which is devoted to research.

Are we shortchanging educational research? Senator Magnuson did not ask me to ask that question.

Mr. CALIFANO. You don't have to tell me that, Mr. Chairman. I will have Pat Graham speak in more detail about research.

As a layman, sitting on top of HEW for the past 26 months, my strong sense would be that the answer is yes; that we should put more money in educational research.

We have, as you know, only with your strong support, been able to effect relatively modest increases in funds for the National Institute of Education since 1977. I think it is inexcusable, by and large, when we recognize how important it is that we don't put more money into this area that an individual get all the education he or she can take.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Mr. Secretary. You are excused; and we are glad to have had you.

We will stand in recess for a few minutes.

[Brief recess.]

Senator EAGLETON. The committee will once again be in session, and I will yield to my colleague, Senator Javits of New York.

Senator JAVITS. Mr. Chairman, thank you so much for being so gracious.

I came—though we are having hearings on my bill this morning, in which I join with Senator Williams—because I am deeply interested in this subject and because the New York State Board of Regents, our highest educational body, has taken a very strong position against the idea of awarding less than a certificate of competence and not just a certificate of attendance or some kind of acknowledgement that people have passed through high school grades.

This is a highly contested issue, especially by minorities and I hope very much that both the distinguished witnesses, as well as Secretary Califano, who I missed here in this hearing, will respond to that point.

It is my own philosophy regarding minorities that we should give them every assistance and opportunity to be able to start from the same starting line as every other member of the population.

Once we get them to that starting point, everybody is on his own, with full and equal opportunity.

What can you distinguished educators tell us on that subject? It would be very helpful to me as a Senator from my own State.

Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Senator EAGLETON. Let's start with the Senator's statement, Dr. Boyer and Dr. Graham.

Dr. BOYER. Senator, it is my opinion that the emphasis on basic skills, the topic of this hearing, is absolutely crucial and it must begin early.

It is further my opinion that the basic of basics is a mastery of language. It is a tool by which all further learning proceeds and, indeed, all socialization.

I think the central focus of the early grades, the first three grades, must be to see that the children master language. I believe that all children, from whatever background, must be given help, compensatory if necessary, to reach that goal.

I certainly endorse your view that every child should be helped especially in the early grades. If they have language or cultural deficiencies, that is where the compensation should occur. And

testing should occur in the early grades to see that learning goals are being met.

After children reach a certain level of achievement, then obviously academic performance must be measured on its own merits.

In my opinion, the certification at the end of high school should be a certification which clearly reflects not only time spent, but educational achievements that have been made.

I think for us not to hold clearly to that mark of achievement is to make the enterprise meaningless and to make the certification only an indication that students have spent time, rather than mastered materials essential to educational progress.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you have any questions?

Dr. GRAHAM. Senator Javits, I would agree with my colleague, Dr. Boyer.

I would like to add that I believe we have an enormous responsibility to make sure that the schools are doing everything they possibly can to help those youngsters for whom academic achievement has been elusive in the past.

I think we are doing quite a good job at the elementary grades, but the task of helping youngsters at later grade levels is still quite difficult.

I don't know of a great many schools that know how to do that task effectively and the schools have to become more effective particularly with the youngsters for whom they have not been effective in the past.

That is what we measure, what people know; not how many years they have been in class.

Dr. BOYER. The area of caution is this: It is important that what is taught in schools is related to what is measured at the end. It is important to place evaluation testing near the end of the academic program if the curriculum and teaching emphasis have not been related to what is being assessed.

So there is a catch to it. Students are at a disadvantage unless the school consistently focuses on materials that are to be assessed. Any mismatch would be a problem.

Senator JAVITS. Thank you very much. I am very grateful to you and to Senator Eagleton for his courtesy; and I would like to ask unanimous consent that a short story on this point from The New York Times of last Sunday be included in the record.

Thank you.

[The information referred to follows:]

[From the New York Times, March 25, 1979]

DUCATION

Competency's Problems

By EDWARD B. FISKE

SCHOOLS in New York State face some major problems in getting their students through the country's stiffest minimum competency tests — beginning with the fact at educators know relatively little out how to provide the "remedial ucation" on which they hinge.

John Maxwell, deputy director of the ational Council of Teachers of Engh, put the problem bluntly. "People sume that remedial programs make difference," he said. "But this has ver been demonstrated. We just don't know enough about effective remediation."

James Fillbrandt, who organized a district-level minimum competency program in Bakersfield, Calif., three years ago but now believes that it has had viturally no positive impact, said that most schools are set in their ways and do not have the flexibility to try different methods when the first one fails.

"Most teachers only have one arrow to shoot," he said in an interview. "You hold the kid up and — boing. If you hit, that's fine. But often you don't. A good teacher will have three arrows, but

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Tougher Testing Will Mean Problems

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some get tired and never shoot the second one."

New York's new minimum competency program goes into effect with this year's high school seniors, who must pass new basic competency tests in reading and mathematics as well as their courses in order to qualify for diplomas. But the big problem is likely to arise in 1981, when these rather easy tests are scheduled to be replaced by much stiffer Regents Competency Tests approved by the Board of Regents earlier this month.

Experience elsewhere suggests that it is politically tolerable to use such tests to deny diplomas to perhaps 2 or 3 percent of the students who would otherwise graduate, and most schools in the state will be within this limit this year. The only exception is New York City, where an estimated 7,200 seniors — or 15 percent — still have not yet passed one or both of the two exams. With tougher tests in 1981, though, even schools outside New York City will be under enormous pressure to get their students to pass.

The regents' answer to that problem was to mandate remedial programs not only for high school students who fail the exams the first time around but also for third-graders and sixth-graders who do poorly on other state-administered tests.

One obvious question is how these remedial programs will be financed at a time when local school districts see themselves as strapped to fund "regular" programs.

The State Education Commissioner, Gordon M. Ambach, has a twofold view of the financial situation. First, he says, some new outside money is likely to be available. The regents have asked the Legislature to increase from $1,500 to $1,650 per pupil the ceiling on funds available under the Pupils with Special Educational Needs program, the vehicle for channeling remedial funds into local schools. Moreover, President Carter has asked for increases in the funding of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. If the increases are approved by Congress, there would be an additional $100 million for New York State.

Secondly, Mr. Ambach says, local school districts will have to "reallocate some of their existing resources toward the goals of minimum competency." In other words, schools will have to rethink their priorities and guarantee that students have the basic academic skills before they start putting funds into such things as advanced courses and extracurricular programs.

"It doesn't do any good for a student to sit in a social studies class if he can't read the assignments," said Kenneth Clark, the staunchest supporter of higher standards on the Board of Regents.

This view, however, challenges traditional academic logic. "The usual mentality is that to have a remedial program you have to hire extra teachers," said Robert R. Spillane, the Deputy Commissioner for Elementary, Secondary and Continuing Education, who bears the major responsibility for implementing the new program. "We're saying, 'Drop what you are doing and focus on reading, writing and arithmetic.' "

Even if the resources can be found, though, the history of Title I and other large-scale remedial programs offers little encouragement that they can bring about the extensive improvements envisaged by the state's new minimum competency program.

Mr. Maxwell of the English teachers organization, for example, noted that students in small groups of six or eight sometimes make substantial gains in reading before being transferred back to a regular class. "But the regular teacher isn't trained in the needs of such students," he said, "and so the results are often short-lived."

Mr. Spillane, in fact, sees the problem as even more basic than that. "We just don't how to teach something like reading," he said. "We know that if they spend a lot of time doing it, kids will learn to read. And we have conned people into believing that we know how to teach it. But we don't."

Nevertheless, the State Education Department believes that some steps can be taken to work more effectively in this little-understood area.

The first is rooted in the fact that after the first three or four grades schools do not usually teach reading per se. "Developmental" reading and mathematics are simply not considered fitting subjects for junior and senior high schools or even for the upper elementary grades. The irony is that the student who fails to learn such basic skills in the first few grades may have to wait until college for remedial instruction.

"High school teachers teach subjects, not skills," said Mr. Spillane.

The State Education Department is also planning to put pressure on schools to move away from the practice of relying for their remedial programs on aides working outside the main classroom rather than teachers.

In short, the strategy of the State Education Department is to solve what some see as the "unsolvable" problem of remedial instruction by eliminating the distinction between "regular" and "remedial" teaching in the first place.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me follow up on Senator Javits' question and your response to it.

If it is so abundantly self-evident that, as I believe it is, that skilled testing, by whatever name it be called, is significant, indeed, almost indispensable, at the earlier grades, not the skilled testing to expel students, but skilled testing to determine their shortcomings that students may have and then be able to cope with that, if that leaps out at common sense cold fact, why is it that 35, 36 States are pell mell rushing into competency testing at the end of the 12th grade rather than getting into some kind of skills testing program at the very early formative grades?

Dr. Boyer or Dr. Graham?

Dr. GRAHAM I think there are two explanations for that. One is that States are, indeed, getting in the act at that time because that is when the States have their last opportunity to reach a student. I think that is one reason for the focus on the later years. I think it a mistake not to recognize that in every State there are extensive programs that affect children throughout the grades.

Senator EAGLETON. All States have that.

I don't think my record shows that at this point in time, but maybe that is a fact. I have heard no testimony that all States have functional, meaningful, useful testing programs in the early school years.

Dr. GRAHAM. These are not mandated state-administered programs. What I intended to say is that in school in all States in the Union, there are testing programs that exist in the elementary grades, but they are not state-mandated programs.

State-mandated programs, which exist in 36 States, are the minimal competency programs that come mostly at the end of the student's high school career and they are given at various times in the high school career. But there have been previous tests that these youngsters have taken before they get to this particular new State requirement.

Senator EAGLETON. Are you telling me every school district in this country has a truly meaningful skill testing program that is meticulously given for remedial purposes at an early date?

Dr. GRAHAM. I would hesitate to make any generalization about 16,000-plus school districts. But I can say that testing does occur in the vast majority of the school districts in the elementary grades. There are many difficulties with these tests. For example, you are not always sure when you give one of those tests that the test is measuring what the teacher has taught the child or what the child has learned elsewhere.

Dr. BOYER. You may have it correct, but I think there is a detailed breakdown of the grades assessed in these current statewide efforts. You are correct: they are weighted toward the upper grades.

The report I am holding indicates only two States——

Senator EAGLETON. Do you have an extra copy of that?

Dr. BOYER. You might be interested. There are many at the beginning, at the third and fifth grade levels, and it states the grade they begin assessing.

What I find interesting, is that testing tends to begin at the third-grade level. But very few testing programs begin there, and it

is my own judgment that it is during the first three or four grades that language development—the rudimentary skills in reading and writing—is so crucial.

We slip at that crucial point in developing the fundamental tool of education. The tests spread from grades 3 through 12.

Senator EAGLETON. We have not seen this chart. So we will put it in the record maybe later on this morning, after one of my brains has rummaged through it and I will have a profound question or two about it.

[The information referred to follows:]

STATE ACTIVITY: MINIMAL COMPETENCY TESTING

State	Action Taken By	Grades Assessed	Skills Assessed	Use
Alabama	State Board	9-12	Basic Skills	High School Graduation
Arizona	State Dept. of Ed.	8 & 12	Reading, Writing Computation	Graduation from 8th and 12th Grades
California	State Legislature	Age 16-Adult	Reading, Consumer Economics, Math	Graduation
	"	B/W 7-9 and 10-11	Reading, Writing, Computation	Graduation
	"	B/W 4-6, 7-9, 10,11	Reading, Comprehension Writing, Computation	Remediation & Promotion
Colorado	State Legislature	9-12	Local District opinion	Optional
Connecticut	State Board	16 yrs. old	GED & APL	Early Exit
Delaware	State Board	11th	Level II	Graduation
Florida	State Legislature	3,5,8,11	Basic Skills	Graduation & Early Exit
Georgia	State Board	4,8,11	Reading, Math Social Studies	none to date
Idaho	State Board	9-12	Reading, Writing, Math & Spelling	Graduation
Illinois	State Legislature	Local District Option	Local District Option	Local District Option
Indiana	State Board	3,6,10	Reading	Remediation
Kansas	State Board	3,6,9,12	Reading/Math	Local District Option
	State Legislature	2,4,6,8,11	Reading/Math	

State	Action Taken By	Grades Assessed	Skills Assessed	Use
Kentucky	State Board	3,5,8,11	Criterion-Referenced Test in Reading	Graduation
	State Legislature	3,5,7,10	Reading, Writing, Spelling Language Arts	-----
Louisiana	State Legislature	4,8,11	Basic Skills	None Mentioned
Maine	State Legislature	11th	Under consideration	Graduation
Maryland	State Legislature	3,7,9,11	Reading	Promotion & Graduation
Massachusetts	State Board	Early Elementary	Math & Communications Skills	[illegible] Basic Skills Competency
Michigan	State Dept. of Education	4,7,10	Reading/Math	Local District Option
Missouri	State Board	8th	Application of Reading, Math, Gov't	No mandate
Nebraska	State Dept. of Education	Begins at grade 5	Reading, Writing, Math	No Specified Use
Nevada	State Legislature	6,9,12	Reading, Writing, Math	Graduation
New Hampshire	State Dept. of Ed.	8 & 12 Under Development / Grade 4	Communication & Math	None Mentioned
New Jersey	State Legislature	3,6,9,11	Reading/Math	Remediation
New Mexico	State Board	Elementary, grade 10	Local Option APL Writing Sample	Proficiency Endorsement on Diploma

State	Action Taken By	Grades Assessed	Skills Assessed	Use
New York	State Board of Regents	11 & 12	Competency Test	Graduation
		K-12 3 & 6 8	Assessment Pupil Evaluation Prelinimary Competency	Identification of Students needing Assistance
North Carolina	State Legislature	11th	To Be Determined by Competency Test Commission	Graduation
		1&2 3,6,9	" "	
Oregon	State Board	District Option	Reading, Writing & Computation	Graduation
Oklahoma	State Board	3,6,9 12	Reading Survival Skills	Decision to follow Baseline Data Test
Rhode Island	State Dept. of Ed. Board of Regents	4,8 Elementary early & late secondary	Life Skills Basic Skills	Local District Use
South Carolina	State Legislature	1,2,3,6,8	Basic Skills	Remediation
Tennessee	State Board State Board	11 & 12 4,5,6,8	Reading, Math, Grammar Local District Option	Graduation Remediation
Utah	State Board	Local District Option	Reading, Writing, Speaking, Math	Graduation
Vermont	State Board	Continous	Reading, Writing, Speaking, Math	Graduation
Virginia	State Legislature	9-12 K-6	Reading, Math, Citizenship Reading, Communications, Math	Graduation To Measure Progress
Washington	State Legislature	4,7,8	SAT in reading, math & Language Arts	School & District Use
Wyoming	State Board	----	Reading, Writing, Computation	Graduation

Dr. BOYER. You have brains available to you.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me ask this. The mere fact that we are holding these hearings has caused at least a minor ripple in the educational community, that somehow this is the opening ploy of the Federal Government for total takeover of education in the country, that what might emerge from these hearings would be some kind of a federally dictated, supervised, mandated, and intruded testing program.

One educator told me he thinks we have not only that but total cut-off of Federal moneys, all kinds of draconian consequences which might come from those, all of which is a lot of bull.

Having said that, would you tread lightly insofar as some kind of uniform national federally annointed competency or skill testing program?

Dr. BOYER. I would.

Senator EAGLETON. So would I.

Dr. BOYER. I agree with your first conclusion, that this effort to inquire into the effectiveness of our schools in no way increased Federal intervention; nor should it.

I think your four letter word was apt.

However, I think the hazards of a nationally improved test are far too great. That should be avoided for the simple reason that a national test presumes a standard national curriculum and implicit in the whole question is some federally imposed standard.

I think the middle ground is to exercise concerted leadership. Through my office we administer over $12 billion in education funds.

Senator EAGLETON. I thought it was $10 billion.

Dr. BOYER. We have gone up to $12 billion in recent years.

We can, though, work closely with State and local agencies, and I think this partnership can go forward without wresting the control or authority from the districts.

Senator Eagleton. I agree, 100 percent with what you say, and this is one item I will resurface from time to time in these hearings because I want to try to respond to a minor degree of nervousness that has been generated as a result of holding these hearings.

Let me ask you the devil's advocate question.

With the high mobility of today's American population, and there are some statistics, I do not have them off the top of my head, but the average American family changes addresses eight times, or something, in the first 10 years of marriage. Do not hold me to that exactly. We are a very mobile Nation.

People rent a modest apartment, they do better economically, get a better apartment, and do better economically, and if, by that time, the U.S. Government has not foreclosed the housing market by interest rate shifts, and you have enough money to buy your first home and your second, is an area of high mobility with children moving from one school district to another school district and oftentimes across State lines.

Take Kansas City, Mo. There is also Kansas City, Kans., and you cannot tell where one starts and the other ends except the southern part of Kansas City, Kans., is the rich part. There is a street, no geographical boundary.

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With that as a factual base, should there not be some kind of uniform test so when Johnny goes from school district *X* to school district *Y*, school district *Y* has the data they say can apply to Johnny?

Dr. GRAHAM. I will respond to your devil's advocate question. I would argue that it is not the role of the Federal Government to require such a mandatory national curriculum under the Constitution we have left the responsibility for curriculum development, and other educational policy to the State and local levels.

Despite our mobility, the fact that there is no identical curriculum has not prevented us from making educational progress. This has not been the principal cause of any difficulties the youngsters have been having in the schools.

I would like to go back, if I may, to your earlier question about national testing, and suggest you review the proceedings of the National Conference on Achievement Testing and Basic Skills, which HEW sponsored a year ago. The proceedings include the consensus of the conference participants on the testing question they were overwhelmingly exposed to a national test.

I will be happy to provide you with a copy of the proceedings.

[The information referred to follows:]

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

There appears to exist only one nationally-reliable comparison of the achievement of graduates from public and private high schools: the National Assessment of Educational Progress study entitled "Adult Work Skills and Knowledge" (September, 1976).

This assessment examined in part, "knowledge or skills generally useful in the world of work" which were defined as follows: (1) Computation/measurement skills; (2) Graphic/reference-materials skills; (3) Written-communication skills; and (4) Manual/perceptual skills.

Computation/measurement skills included such items as calculating area in square feet and square yards, converting decimals to fractions and using a ruler. Use of graphic/reference materials demanded knowledge of certain conventions; for example, how to use graphs and charts, dictionaries, telephone books and measuring instruments. In the written-communication section, respondents were asked to fill out an order blank, write a classified ad and write a job application letter. Manual/perceptual skills involved such things as following oral directions to complete a nonverbal task and drawing a three-dimensional object in perspective.

The authors of the report concluded: "Adults who had attended tax-supported (public) high shools did not differ significantly in achievement levels from those who had attended nontax-supported (private or parochial) high schools."

Although this finding appears to run counter to the conventional wisdon regarding the achievement of private school graduates, it should be noted that "nontax-supported schools" include not only highly-exclusive preparatory schools and large parochial school systems (which are frequently selective in their admissions procedures), but also non-selective private schools.

Senator EAGLETON. What about this devil's advocate concept?

If early testing is beneficial, and it is, if the factual base would show it is a mixed bag among the 16,000 school districts in the country, that many are doing it extraordinarily well, some are doing so and so, and a few are not doing it at all.

If it is vital and important, what would you think of an appropriation, either on a capitation grant base or some other form of basis which would make moneys available to every school district with no strings, to engage in or to enlarge the competency skills at these very early ages, the first grade or the second grade where you say

these charts show that a lot of States are not doing anything in that area?

Dr. BOYER. I would feel positively inclined to support any effort, Senator, that would make it possible for schools to engage in assessment at the early grades, certainly in language development. I do not have any particular strategy in mind but, I would support a program with no strings, as you said, which would help schools work toward the development of skills assessment during the first two, three, or four grades.

That would help us move in the direction that would produce a good foundation in language skills.

So I would have to say that having heard the proposal for the first time I am inclined to feel friendly toward it.

Senator EAGLETON. This is the first time I thought of it.

We have some youngsters who have just come into the hearing room. We have some seats up here. If you have a question you want to ask—come up here. There are some chairs. It is your country.

I just thought of that subject for the first time, and you just responded to it for the first time. How would you get around this argument, well, at first blush, that it would be a benign and noble thing for the Federal Government, but we know once the Federal Government intrudes into that area, the next step, the next inevitable step, is a year or two or three later there will be a Federal takeover and no explanation attached; they fall by the wayside and lots of strings are ultimately attached.

How would you rebut that allegation?

Dr. BOYER. First, as you know better than anyone perhaps, we are investing about $3 billion, that goes to 14,000 school districts under title I.

In fact, Mr. Chairman, our elementary and secondary education budget serves about 25 percent of all the school children in America. Most of that is focused on basic skills.

I do not know of anyone who has ever charged that Federal intervention has touched on processes of teaching or the educational enterprise itself.

People have complained about mechanics or machinery—the burden of redtape—and we are trying to reduce that burden. But I do not know of instances where it has been charged there has been direct Federal intervention in the teaching and learning process.

I am suggesting that we can help local districts assess the achievement of children in the remedial programs which we help support without triggering Federal intervention and without having anyone from Washington start to run the schools and dictate the nature of teaching.

Senator PELL. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

First, I would like to thank the chairman of this hearing, Senator Eagleton. Our whole subcommittee supports Senator Eagleton in this series of hearings. He is traveling across this country at considerable sacrifice of time and energy. He is performing a real service to the future of our country, and everyone on the subcommittee and in the Senate and the country should be grateful.

I have some questions I want to put to you.

First, I was struck by the sentence in Secretary Califano's statement where he said, "The key to excellence in education is not in any Federal program to support education, however good that program may be. The key is not even in the hands of our teachers, however committed and diligent they may be. The key can only be found in a widespread national commitment to high standards, to hard work and to academic rigor. Not only educators, but parents and their children need to make that commitment."

I think he has put the cart right where it belongs.

We have put a load on the schools to solve so many of our social problems, such as desegregation and the ending of the war in Vietnam.

Do you know of any studies that have been made concerning the relative performance of private versus public schools?

Fifty years ago, there was a belief, I think, that public schools performed best.

It is my hunch that might be different now. Is that a hunch or are there any facts to support it?

Dr. GRAHAM. Offhand, I do not know. I am certain there are materials available which could show a differential performance between public school and private school pupils.

To arrive at those kinds of scores, one would have to compare the performance of private school graduates of Groton or St. Paul, for example, with public school graduates of similar family backgrounds. Or compare intercity parochial schools with public schools serving intercity youths.

Senator PELL. I think if you compared salaries, you would find salaries in private schools are considerably less.

Dr. GRAHAM. You are absolutely right.

Senator PELL. Maybe you could find some statistics and put them in the record.

Dr. GRAHAM. I will be happy to provide that for the record.

Senator PELL. My next question is in connection with voluntary tests. I think something like the New York Regent's Test, with which the Commissioner is so familiar, only given voluntarily when the student applies to have it administered, would be a good idea.

I have asked in some of these big close-up groups with 250 students what would be their reaction to such a test. I thought not a hand would go up and, amazingly, 95 percent of the hands went up of students who wanted these tests.

What is your reaction?

Dr. BOYER. I prefer, Senator, at least as a procedure, to follow the course of action that is now being pursued, and that is to work with the States so that all States develop statewide assessment. I think it is possible to achieve the ends which we share mutually, stopping short of what might be an examination finally certified in my office or some other agency here.

I don't want us to move in a direction that will cause so much controversy that we undermine the control objective.

This is a value judgment.

I know fully your position and understand the goal. I am slightly more cautious on it at the moment. I think there is encouraging movement in the States.

During the past 2 years, we have gone from 4 States that had statewide assessment to 36. I am convinced that before the next 2 or 3 years go by, we are going to see almost universal involvement in statewide assessment triggered in part by title II of our last reauthorization.

Now, as Senator Eagleton's question hinted, we probably are going to see more assessments which are uniform and transferable because, as he noted, one out of five families move every year. That is as much an eroding part of education as any factor I know.

In one school I visited 8 months ago, the principal told me that about 70 percent of the children will have changed before the school year ends. Senator, for a school, this is a catastrophe. That is portability of expectation. It is the only troublesome part of State-by-State strategy.

To summarize, I am still cautious about the proposal that we have some national certified measurement at this time.

Senator PELL. Our country is a mobile country, as Senator Eagleton pointed out, and there will be controversy, but I think they should know where they stand.

I suggested last year that the schools in Puerto Rico, which are American, should be able to speak fluent English and compete in an English-speaking society. There were serious editorials about that.

I think even though this is controversial, we are one country, and the youngsters in one section of the country should know how they compare with students in another section.

Now, turn this thought one step further and, as you know, I was defeated in my efforts to bring about involuntary tests, but we did succeed in getting the Council for Quality in Education authorized. Yet, although this council has been authorized for many years, many administrations, Republican and Democrat alike, have ignored it.

Is there any more thought being given to carrying out the intent of Congress in this regard and establish a Council on Quality Education at the Federal level, authorized as it is now?

Dr. BOYER. During my tenure as Commissioner there has not been serious discussion of that, Senator.

Dr. GRAHAM. It is my understanding that Secretary Califano is reconsidering this, in light of the 1978 amendments, and that he will be bringing it to our attention.

Senator PELL. I will do my best to try to see it stays in the law because I think it is a good idea.

To go back to a previous issue the statistics on public and private schools, I would think would balance.

You can say the youngsters from Groton should not be compared to inner city schools' youngsters. But, on the average, I would think it would be an interesting statistic to have, particularly in view of the fact that if I am correct the cost of education is substantially less in private schools than in the public schools. I do not know, but I think we should have those figures.

Dr. BOYER. I think those data would be partially revealing.

Could I underscore a point that Pat mentioned on private schools. By definition they are selective, and I think in the very

nature of the institution have a skewed population. But nonetheless, I think we should know more about the comparisons.

There are outstanding private schools. Also I have seen some very, very marginal private schools that have been set up on a kind of catch-as-catch-can basis for various reasons. So a pretty big net is drawn under the heading of private education.

Senator PELL. Private schools are selective, as you point out. However, let us see how their performance compares to that of public schools.

Dr. BOYER. We are talking about 5 million American children.

Dr. GRAHAM. We will be happy to provide what we can for the record.

Senator EAGLETON. Where are you from?

We have some students from Bucks County, Pa.

Let me ask Senator Pell's question of you. What do you think of a national competency voluntary exam where your skills in reading and, if it is testable, writing and mathematics, would be evaluated and you could then, and your parents could judge whether you are above the national norm, right with the national norm, below the national norm; pretty voluntary. You would not have to take the test, but if you volunteer you would have the test and the results would show where you were vis-a-vis other students around the country.

(A) Do you think there ought to be that kind of a possibility, and (B) Would you avail yourself of it and take the test?

A VOICE. We took a test this past year. It was an aptitude test, that was something like that, based on the skills.

Senator EAGLETON. Were you required to take the test?

A VOICE. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Were you told the test results?

A VOICE. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. So you knew sort of where you stood in your class among other students.

Senator PELL. What grade are you in?

A VOICE. Ninth grade.

Senator PELL. Let us say you were a 12th great big gray-haired grader.

Do you think those tests would be valuable to you, or do you think it would be a mistake to have a national voluntary test made available to you as 12th graders?

Those who think it should be available, raise your hands. Those who think it should not be available, do not.

All hands are raised. We get the same results with groups of 250 students. These students apparently would like a voluntary test.

Senator EAGLETON. Senator Pell highlighted page 21 of Secretary Califano's testimony. I hope the press will make sure that gets in the article.

Dr. Boyer, you mentioned you had not heard the charge of the Federal Government is dictating contents, curriculum, what have you, to public education.

I heard the charge just as recently as about a week ago where an individual came in to see me from my State and said, Mr. Eagleton, why are you so surprised that SAT scores started going down in the mid 1960's? There is a reason for that said this person. It was

in the mid 1960's, 1965 to be exact, when Congress enacted the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. It was in the mid 1960's that the Supreme Court took God out of public schools, and the occurrence of those two events, said this individual, is the reason for the decline in SAT scores.

Senator EAGLETON. I do not share your constituent's view.

Dr. BOYER. It seems to me these are hopelessly distorted comments about a very complicated problem, Senator. There is no evidence whatsoever that by giving more money to school districts to help children who cannot read well, we cause erosion of performance.

The schools have gone through a very hard time, and they are a reflection of the community.

If you want to look for causes, you could say it was during the time that national morale was plummeting, too. It was during this time that attitudes toward institutions generally began to erode. It was during this time some of our own stability showed sharp shifts.

I am sorry about that scurrilous narrow line of rhetoric which says that declines in student performance are caused by money from Washington. It is a shocking statement, like all cause-effect connections, I think it would need to stand the light of careful scrutiny.

Senator EAGLETON. You are absolutely right. But I wanted to pose the question to you.

Dr. GRAHAM. I think that if you take a look at the report of the College Entrance Examination Board, you will find an excellent summary of these factors and an explanation of the decline in SAT scores. I think the college board was right in concluding that there was no single factor which caused this decline, nor could one say what the precise relative weight of each of those factors was.

Senator EAGLETON. That is absolutely correct, and Mr. Wirtz so testified in the previous hearing. But I wanted to surface this matter and have it on the record.

Let us discuss the television thing which I mentioned in passing during Secretary Califano's testimony.

You heard my summary of Dr. Giamatti's testimony, the president of Yale, not considered as being a very serious cause of academic decline, whereas Mr. Wirtz and I said we thought it was guilty beyond all reasonable doubt of being part of the influence in the decline.

Dr. BOYER. Since I have been Commissioner more recently than I have been in a university, I would say at this time, quite seriously, I believe television has had a profound impact on school performance, not because it now occupies enormously the time of students, but because studies have shown that children watch television 4 to 5 hours every day before they ever go to school.

Data also shows that children will have watched television about 15,000 or 16,000 hours, while they are in front of classroom teachers only about 11,000 hours.

You cannot take 4 to 5 hours out of the waking time of the student, and that is every day, and assume that there are no tradeoffs.

It is obvious that you have certain erosion in time, as least part of which might be spent in more formidable study.

There is another point that I think should be made that is even more consequential. In my opinion, the patterns of learning that television tends to establish are in many ways contrary to the patterns in learning that the school requires.

First, may I remind you that television is passive, not active, and passive learning is not the key to ultimate excellence. We perform well academically when we ourselves produce by writing, by speaking, because they are reflections of clear thinking. The muteness and passivity which attend TV watching are precisely the things that cause a person's verbal and intellectual skills to atrophy.

Secondly, television programs are built around swift change and entertainment. I talked to a group of students last week, much like the ones you have had from Bucks County—I am impressed with the staging you have done this morning. The students I talked with agreed unanimously that television had been a negative factor; as they put it, "We would expect a commercial in the classroom every 13½ minutes."

There is something about the expectation that television provides that puts a teacher in second place.

May I close on TV.

I think the potential of TV to be a powerful teacher for good should be a point we should pursue. In many ways, television has become the most important teacher of our culture, far more influential in many ways than the classroom.

I have questions:

Where television competes with the teacher, television wins hands down, Walter Cronkite notwithstanding. Television can take children to the Moon, can engage in a world peace signing and go to the bottom of the ocean and hear whales burp. To my vision of the future, the key is to find a way for more television to be educationally excellent or for more of our classrooms to be linked to 50 million children watching Sesame Street. Programs like that give them an appreciation for numbers; and that can help in the classroom.

On balance, based on experience to date, I think television has been part of the problem. But it can also be part of the solution.

Senator EAGLETON. What are you doing, Mr. Commissioner, to giving expression to the thought you just expressed on the potential, positive impact of television? What are you doing toward requesting Federal appropriations, as joint venture with public broadcasting, or the linkage with HEW and the three major networks? What are you doing to try to bring a Utopian day where television is a plus factor?

Dr. BOYER. We were the first to fund Sesame Street. It is my point that probably, except for Title I, that was the most significant involvement of this office in helping education in this country.

As I mentioned, there are now 50 million children watching every day and that viewing audience changes, of course, every time new children come along.

We continue to be one of the active partners in that.

Senator, we are just now completing an agreement with Children's Television Workshop and the National Science Foundation to fund new series on science technology and the environment for junior high school. What is unique is, we are preparing classroom

teaching material and this program will be offered during the day as well as in the evening.

During the day, teachers and students have teaching materials that are plugged into what is being presented on television, material that no classroom teacher could do on his on her own.

We just recently completed a preschool level program, the first part of a series, "Footsteps," which is a study of family life with children and the role of children in the home; and we are moving to a second series which deals with the transition of children in the home to school and the role of parents and teachers.

We are asking for a modest increase, but our current budget of $7 million or $9 million is only a fragment of what I think this new teaching source would require.

But we have been making some moves that I think are very dramatic.

Senator EAGLETON. You mentioned Sesame Street, and frequently referred to it as beneficial, enhancing the development of young intellect. I believe it is. However, Dr. Graham's testimony, where she points out Sesame Street is viewed almost exclusively by the children of middle- and upper-middle-income families and is only viewed in a very miniscule way by children of lower-income families.

Do I misinterpret your remarks from your prepared testimony?

Dr. GRAHAM. Senator Eagleton, in general "Sesame Street" has been very effective with the children who watch it. Regrettably, the program reached has not reached as universal a segment of the population as we would like; but of those children it has reached, the results have been very encouraging.

If I may, I would like to mention some of the work NIE has been doing in the area of television. We are not in the business of funding operational programs but we do fund some demonstrations. We are currently producing a program for adolescents called "Free Style," which is intended to help them to understand the wide range of opportunities available to them as adults in an effort to break both sex and class occupational stereotypes.

For example, one particular program, "Grease Monkey." showed a 14- or 15-year-old taking a job as a car mechanic rather than as a seamstress in her aunt's dress shop. This series was produced in both English and Spanish by KCET-TV in Los Angeles, Calif. From all reports, the series has been quite favorably received.

NIE is providing support to the University of Mid-America, a consortium of 11 States which provides university college level and continuing education programing through home television to the adult public who do not have ready access to a college campus.

NIE is also funding two satellite educational programs, one in Appalachia and another in Alaska, that provide informational material over television. Although we think these projects serve a useful purpose, we are also extremely concerned about the potential television has for taking up people's time in ways that are not beneficial to the individual. Contingent upon fiscal year 1980 funds, NIE's Educational Policy—Organizational Group plans to begin a major study on the impact of television in learning.

After all in my generation a book provided entertainment; surely that had to be better for your reading skills than watching television.

Senator EAGLETON. I guess we have beat Jerry Silverman over the head.

I read an excerpt from the Sunday Washington Post of March 11, 1979, "The Last of the Media Mirage," and it refers in a portion to William Paley and CBS. I will read two portions of this article into the record.

> Yet, in most newsmaking aspects of his, Paley's, proposal, that the three networks sit down together and agree to each devote 2 hours prime time a week to quality programming. The other networks have all but laughed in Paley's face, and even within CBS, the proposal is referred to almost as if it were the nutty scheme of some daft codger. They smirked about it.
>
> Paley believes that the industry has ignored a very special segment of the audience that wants a very special kind of program and we haven't given it to them yet, says Mr. Paley.

One other followup question to you, Dr. Graham, because it was a point that you mentioned in your immediately preceding answer.

In fiscal year 1980's budget, there is recommended $2 million for basic skills technology and development using TV.

Dr. GRAHAM. That is one part.

Senator EAGLETON. That makes me sad. If it is $2 million and only part of it is going to using television as a greater tool of academic excellence, isn't that almost insulting?

Wouldn't we be better to drop the whole idea and let nature take its course and what have you, rather than put a penny into the program and fool the public that we are getting on top of that?

We have an item in the 1980 budget and we are getting with it, and you and I know $2 million in this endeavor is scandalously low, don't we?

Dr. GRAHAM. Senator, I am in complete agreement with you and refer to your earlier question to Secretary Califano about the general level at which we fund educational research in this country.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, I guess that is the best we can do.

Let me ask you about terminology. Let me throw a bunch of terms to you and you tell me if they mean the same thing or if they mean different things.

Basic skills, assessment program, national assessment, competency testing, skills evaluation. I guess I could add some more.

Do all of those things mean the same thing, or not?

Dr. GRAHAM. No, they do not mean the same thing.

Senator EAGLETON. Take me through them.

Dr. GRAHAM. Basic skills takes on different meanings depending on who is speaking about it. But generally, when people talk about basic skills they are talking about the elements that make up literacy: reading, writing, and computation. Basic skills is the ability to perform these tasks at a really simple level—up to the fourth grade which is the level at which you had to be able to perform to get into the Army during World War I.

I believe assessment was the next term.

What is now called assessment was called testing in my childhood—making a judgment about what someone knew about something.

National assessment was next.

National assessment usually refers to what we call the national assessment of educational progress, a program which has been in place now for over a decade and under which the Federal Gorvernment has provided funds to the Education Commission of the States to annually test a sample of youngsters (9, 13, 17, and some 25 year olds) on what they know in the areas of reading, writing, science, mathematics, and functional literacy. That program has now been transformed by congressional action (the Educational Amendments of 1978) from the National Center for Educational Statistics to NIE. We are now managing this program.

Senator EAGLETON. Competency testing.

Dr. GRAHAM. Competency testing, a term first introduced by Robert Glazer, a psychologist at the University of Pittsburgh, is the kind of test used to see whether one can complete a particular task, fill out a form, follow a recipe, or something of that kind. It is a test of a particular skill rather than just of knowledge or general aptitude, which are considered the old-fashioned kinds of tests.

Senator EAGLETON. Skills testing.

Dr. GRAHAM. Skills testing is very similar to competency testing, in that you are going after a particular skill. The term is a little more specific than competency testing.

Dr. BOYER. I have a slightly different response. I generally try to avoid all these terms. I really think by and large they are useful in the fairly esoteric world that Pat described. But I don't think they mean very much in the general discussion of the problem, especially when you are talking about the parent, the public, and where we are going.

I think only two issues are being discussed.

First, what we think children should learn and, second, how could we determine if they have learned that. Occasionally, there might be more sophisticated labels to hang on these two issues.

But I think by and large there is considerable confusion over that in the way we abstract those two very simple issues.

Dr. GRAHAM. I would, of course, agree with that.

Senator EAGLETON. Senator Pell inquired about skill levels of achievement, levels of private versus public schools.

Let me pose this in a slightly different way.

I view it not so much in the context of Andover and Exeter Public School 182, but I view it in the context which is occurring, taking place in many inner-city situations in the country.

Take St. Louis.

There are youngsters whose parents are transferring them out of the St. Louis public school system to put them in St. Louis' Catholic school system, regardless of religious affiliation, under the assumption they will get a better quality of education in the St. Louis parochial system than they are getting in the St. Louis public school system.

Would you comment on that,

These are both black and white parents.

Dr. GRAHAM. I think that you will find this a common phenomenon today. I think that one of the most important things to say is that those youngsters, whose parents are making that decision, are likely to get a good education wherever they are because their

parents are obviously concerned about the quality of education their child is to receive.

The parental involvement that Secretary Califano spoke of earlier is probably as significant an influence on how much that child is going to learn.

Dr. BOYER. That trend is there, but I think if it is not arrested, it would be tragic. That is why your hearings are crucial.

The education of our children and the quality of the public schools is central to the quality of this Nation; and if we allow them to degenerate we will, I think, erode the foundation on which the entire notion of this Government is built. That is not mere sentiment and, without being insensitive, why parents make this choice.

This country is committed to the private-school movement which has added so much richness.

But if we allow the public schools to be shortchanged by people who care deeply, I am convinced that we will have lost much.

Dr. GRAHAM. The superintendent of schools for Boston, Robert Wood, came to speak at an NIE seminar a few months ago. He is a former Secretary of Housing and Urban Development, and he said that when he served in that capacity, he believed that those were the crucial issues; but he now believes that the crucial issues for cities of this Nation as a whole is the preservation of our public school system. That is why he accepted this new and demanding position.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Wood will be a witness at our Boston hearings in a week or so.

I was very impressed with your answers, Dr. Boyer and Dr. Graham.

What if you were the superintendent, Dr. Boyer, in the St. Louis public school system and you saw within your own school system a trend we have just described.

Could you perceive that if that trend continues that it would contribute to the eventual demise of the public school system? And what remedial steps would you attempt to initiate to avert that result?

Dr. BOYER. I would prefer to generalize——

Senator EAGLETON. OK.

Dr. BOYER. Rather than to presume to know what I would do.

Senator EAGLETON. I correct my question.

Dr. BOYER. I say this with hesitation because it is easy to talk in a social context of the urban area. It is difficult to act but, having said that, I believe that the road to recovery is related to the clarity of purpose, and to getting parents at home to engage in discussions of goals and how those goals can be achieved.

Unfortunately, there has been very little participation in recent years in which the parents themselves are able to have confidence in the school, know where it is going, that they are a partner in that process.

Where should the school go?

I think it is at the beginning levels, which we have already said. The children are here to master certain fundamental tools. They are going to learn to read and write. They are going to learn computation skills and I would find ways, as best I could, to help

parents understand (a) that is exactly why the children are here and (b) here is what you can help us provide. I would offer seminars and teaching materials for parents, let them understand what the school is trying to achieve and let them see-that homework allows the parent to participate in assessment.

I think if the parent feels a goal is clear and is related to the quality of education, they are going to join any school, whether public or private. They are buying private school with very little knowledge about whether it is going to be better, but with a sense they will control it more, they will participate more. It will be closer to them.

At the secondary level, junior high, which has lost much of its focus, I would like to see a general curriculum developed in which parents understand what during those middle years their children are introduced, to successively larger realms of human knowledge. I think the upper level is a disaster, especially the urban high school, is a disaster.

I believe the school must be more flexible, offering specialists in the arts, some early college studies for the gifted, and some out-of-school apprenticeships for those who want to test the field that interests them most. I would also encourage the schools to work with parents and businesses in the community, and to work with social agencies to foster a closer connection between school and life experience.

I believe that if the parents in school districts were brought together and, under the leadership of the superintendent and teachers, they say, "Here is what we are trying to do; here are the goals, and we want you to help us plan the best way to do it," then there would be a rebuilding of confidence. On the other hand, if the goals are not clear, parents are going to be confused and if they don't know what to do, they will be angry.

Schools need to lead a reassessment of goals, not for afternoon tea parties, not for cookie sales, but, "How can my child be best educated?"

Senator EAGLETON. In your testimony before the Appropriations Committee, I believe you stated the magnet school concept which, by and large, focuses singularly on segregation, that that concept be broadened to enlist attention, interest on basic skills.

If I am summarizing what your point was, could you elaborate and explain to me what you had in mind?

Dr. BOYER. The magnet school one which attracts students by offering something special—science, the arts, languages, a business or vocational curriculum, or perhaps just an exceptional basic curriculum. If I had my way, every school would in some respects be a magnet school, because every school would be distinctive in some way.

A school should do something so well a student wants to come.

My conviction is that every district could have clusters of magnet schools where academic specialties could be explored by students. By the time students are in their middle- and upper-teens, they are in some ways mature and sophisticated far beyond other generations, although not necessarily wiser. They want to demonstrate who they are in much more specific ways than our schools now allow.

Senator EAGLETON. If you give me a couple of minutes, I will read through the matters here and maybe I can shorten things up.

In your statement, Dr. Boyer, you emphasize the facility of State formula grants under the title II program.

As you know, there was a great deal of debate on this difficult point in Congress with the House.

My concern was that with a very small appropriation—and you are sort of indicating about $4 million next year—that each State would get such a small amount of funds that there could be no impact felt.

Although this does establish distribution of these funds by population, it is clearly the intent of Congress that only those States which could demonstrate a truly comprehensive basic skills plan would be awarded funds.

Frankly, I don't see how the States can do much at all with an average grant of $8,000. I would rather spend $4 million, if that is all this Government can afford, on a basic skills award.

What an indictment of our priorities that would be. If that is all we can spend, $4 million, I would spend it in one school district and try to do something rather than drop that bag of $8,000 per State and know in so doing you are doing nothing.

I don't want any Missouri district to receive that; Chicago or New York or Los Angeles, I care not. We exclude not.

Dr. BOYER. I would try to interpret the new legislation carefully, beginning by observing that any plan is adequately developed and that you include title I bilingual education and other components that our office alone administers.

We see some planning in a much broader context that goes beyond $4 million or $8 million. I see those dollars, as the law clearly seems to suggest, in a sense the connecting point that is going to give us the leverage, to see those dollars are being planned and delivered in a coordinated way. We haven't been doing this very well in the past.

A year and a half ago, I asked how many of our offices are dealing specifically with basic skills, and I found at least 14 offices in OE that had basic skills as a central mission but they had not talked to each other. We formed a group and brought these programs together.

Title II, which has $20 million going directly to districts under part A, and a large percentage of funds going through State departments to the districts under part B, also adds the leverage needed to coordinate programs.

In order to get part B money, for example, States must have a coherent statewide plan, not only for the use of those limited dollars but also for other dollars going out. In order to receive funds under part A, districts must coordinate with the State plan and show how other basic skills resources are being coordinated.

The last thing I want to do fund is administrators. We have enough. We don't need more administrators. What we need to do is start at the administrative level on how to deliver services better. I believe this money is going to allow us to get the leverage we need to have the impact we want.

I see the encouraging signals I am getting. It is to act the way the law intends. I want to achieve one thing, mainly to interpret adequately and administer the spirit of that legislation.

Senator EAGLETON. I say this in fairness—I should tidy up my question.

I was not denouncing or decrying you.

I am decrying the congressional approach that we drop these little bags of money in all 50 States. You are struggling with the law we ineptly write. I want that made clear for the record.

Let's talk a little about teacher preparation to teach basic skills.

There is a feeling out there that part of this problem, a significant part of the problem is that teachers aren't prepared to teach these basic skills. Criticisms are: the credit hours received in reading-related courses by future elementary teachers are insufficient. Future secondary teachers often receive few or no credit hours in reading. We are told that some college reading courses are weak, particularly with regard to reading experience.

Either of you care to comment on those things we hear from various people?

Dr. BOYER. First, I would make a general comment and Pat has the hard facts.

It is my impression that we have not done well in preparing teachers to teach. By and large, teaching has become almost incidental to other interests of faculties and departments. Teaching has not been a top priority. For 3 years I was chairman of an organization in California called the Commission on the Preparation of Teachers, and the entire purpose of that was to implement a new law in California which required that all teachers have an academic major and a minor, but, also, prepare for certification, by gaining, through practical experience. It is my own opinion that we have not been nearly as effective at the college level in getting teachers prepared to do what the classroom requires.

I think one of my biggest pet peeves is the fact that preparing young people to teach the next generation in many colleges and universities is thought of a second or third or fourth-rate enterprise; and if you can't do something else, you teach.

We must turn this on end to understand that to teach effectively in the lower grades is one of the most honorable enterprises and, indeed, one of the most difficult. I would say one of our problems has been the training of teachers. On the other hand, whenever I get close to classroom teaching I am impressed that it is one of the toughest jobs on Earth and a lot of the people who criticize couldn't last two weeks.

Senator EAGLETON. I agree with you.

Dr. GRAHAM. I have been involved in teacher preparation for years. I ran a teacher training program in the New York City schools; Columbia University did not think it was academically respectable to be training teachers for our school system.

I would argue this concern: Respectability is vital because it is imperative that we get people into the teaching field who are themselves academically qualified, who have mastered learning and who believe they can help other people master learning. It is important that we attract to the teaching profession individuals

who have themselves enjoyed learning and who have done well at it.

We have to address the conditions that the teachers themselves put up with, so that the people who are gifted teachers will stay in their profession.

In most school systems, to get out of teaching, to become a guidance counselor or an administrator, is considered a promotion up and out of teaching. We must figure out how to keep these gifted teachers from moving out or being promoted out of teaching, which means changing the conditions under which teachers work and perhaps it may mean a change in pay scale for what promotion, in fact, can mean.

Another major, issue we are promoting at NIE consists of two large scale programs; one at Michigan State University and one at the University of Texas. Both programs focus on inservice teacher development.

I have never known a teacher who didn't want his or her students to learn; but I know of teachers who don't know how to make them learn. We have to be more effective in making this type of assistance more readily available to teachers.

Senator EAGLETON. There are school districts in the United States that have a teachers college directly or indirectly affiliated with that public school system. That teachers college accepts any high school graduate of said public school system. The 4-year curriculum is offered to individuals. If they receive a college diploma at the end of 4 years, they go to the end of the hiring list for the same public school system.

How widespread is that system of teacher development and does it cause you some problems?

Dr. GRAHAM. Yes, it causes me problems, but it causes me less of a problem than it did 15 years ago when there was a tremendous shortage of teachers and the schools were forced to accept teachers of a lower caliber, who could stay in the classroom for extended periods; the school had very little say in what candidates they chose because they needed so many teachers.

Today, the opposite is true. There is an oversupply of teachers; the school system can now make more sanguine judgments about individuals they might wish to hire.

Dr. BOYER. I do not think that practice is as widespread as you describe it. I think most States have established criteria for quality that wouldn't allow any such process to continue uninterruptedly.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me probe about this term "literacy."

As I understand the Census people, to be literate it is anyone 14 years of age or older who has completed the sixth grade or who states that he or she can read and write a simple message, whether in English or some other language.

Another term is "functional literacy."

Would you discuss the Census Bureau definition or give us your definition of functional literacy, or illiteracy?

Dr. BOYER. The Census definition, I think, is too broad. It may be the only way when you are surveying large numbers of people that you could check. I am not administering that, so I can't judge.

If I understand their approach, it is based on attaining a certain grade in school or a statement by the person that he or she can read. Neither of these demonstrates what I would call literacy.

Drifting on to functional literacy, it, like competency testing, doesn't trip easily off my tongue. I think it confuses the people about what you are talking about.

It was used by someone who was trying to determine a special level of coping in our culture and, as I understand, the "functional" means someone who can get along—fill out forms and pass examinations and apply for social security.

I understand that functional literacy under this definition may be in decline.

However, part of the problem may be the forms themselves. We may be asking people to behave in ways that the computers expect and don't fit our way of behavior.

I go back to the question: Literacy, to me, is the ability to read the printed page in your primary language at a level that will permit you to understand and comprehend and also to be able to write in that same language.

Now, we do talk about the level at which one is literate. I suppose the task force in the schools that are geared to about the sixth grade would be a reasonable level.

I am going on the gradation of ability to read and write but there is no other way to use literacy. I think the sixth-grade performance level might be considered the threshold to get a hold in the culture, but to ask a student to do that without measuring is a high risk.

As you know, UNESCO, I believe, has an international literacy criterion that they employ and measure against, on which the United States does very well, indeed.

Measured against that, I think 2, 3 percent acknowledged illiterate, based on mastery of one's own language.

And in the UNESCO scale, the functional failure rate is much higher. A study suggests maybe 25 percent of adults in the society can't cope with all the paper forms that are imposed.

Dr. GRAHAM. Most striking to me is how the demands of literacy have increased. During World War I, the Army required its inductees to function at the fourth grade level; today you have to be able to function at the sixth grade level to get into the Air Force. And the most recent 1040 form placed the ability to read at the level of 13.2 which is completion of the first year of college—substantially less than half of the population is going to college.

So, they keep upping the ante on what we mean by literacy.

Senator EAGLETON. Can we take about a 3-minute recess? I have a few more questions and then I will finish.

[Brief recess.]

Senator EAGLETON. We will stand in session.

I have two final questions.

A great deal of criticism has been leveled at the minimal competency testing movement. Some believe it encourages mediocrity. Others complain that teachers only teach the test.

Would you comment on this criticism and what NIE is doing or can do to meet them?

Dr. Graham?

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Dr. GRAHAM. I think any test would suggest to people that they need only to know the minimal, without aspiring to know the maximum, is absolutely wrong.

Research at NIE has shown that the reason you test is not because you want students to do the test; what you want to do is use the test as an indicator of how much the student is learning.

One of the things we are currently doing as a followup to the National Conference on Achievement Testing is sponsoring a series of regional conferences on testing and instruction. One was just held in Detroit the other day and several more are scheduled for the spring and summer.

We have two parts to the regional conference. One day is devoted to the general issues of testing: how tests are to be used, what are their positive aspects, what are their limitations.

The second day is devoted to the hot items in that particular region; what are the minimal competency tests proposed or enacted by the State legislatures for that region and what the particular issues are for local people.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Graham, is there any evidence indicating use of reading specialists as concentrated with regular classroom teachers has improved students' achievement?

Dr. GRAHAM. If you reduce the student/teacher ratio in the classroom, from 25 to 12, student achievement will improve. Essentially, having a reading specialist and a regular teacher in the classroom lets you cut that ratio in half.

Having two competent teachers in a classroom, a specialist and a regular means the students will learn. If one is a reading specialist, so much the better, since reading is obviously the key to all the other academic endeavors.

Senator EAGLETON. Let's have a hypothetical school district and let's say that school district in this year can afford to have reading specialist teachers already on the payroll and the budget permits them to hire one additional reading specialist and they hire a hotshot reading specialist, really a superior person.

Would you deploy that teacher in various classrooms to teach individual students or deploy the hotshot to teach the teachers?

Dr. GRAHAM. It would depending upon what I thought of the existing teachers in the system; whether I thought the teachers were doing a good job of teaching reading, or not; and how the junior high school students were doing in reading compared with the elementary school students.

If I thought the teachers were competent, but I was at the same time worried about the reading scores, I might bring in the reading specialist.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me thank Secretary Califano and Dr. Boyer and Dr. Graham for excellent testimony. Your full statements, Dr. Boyer and Dr. Graham, will appear in the record as if read.

The next two hearings of this committee on this subject matter will be April 3 at 9:30 a.m in Boston at the English High School.

On April 9, at 10:30 a.m. in Chicago we will have a hearing at the Center for Urban Education.

Dr. BOYER. Senator, may I just say, on our behalf, we are extremely grateful to you for holding these hearings and allowing

this issue of the quality of our schools to be discussed in such an open and fair fashion; and I believe it is contributing to increased excellence, and I thank you for it.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Dr. Boyer and Dr. Graham.

[The prepared statements of Dr. Boyer and Dr. Graham follow:]

FOR RELEASE UPON DELIVERY

STATEMENT BY
THE HONORABLE ERNEST L. BOYER
COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION
OFFICE OF EDUCATON
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
BEFORE THE
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS, AND HUMANITIES
COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES
UNITED STATES SENATE
WEDNESDAY, MARCH 28, 1979
9:30 A.M.

MR. CHAIRMAN AND MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE:

I'M VERY PLEASED TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS SIGNIFICANT SERIES OF HEARINGS ON BASIC SKILLS.

I'M OFTEN ASKED TO DEFINE "BASIC EDUCATION". MY RESPONSE IS UNEQUIVOCAL; LANGUAGE IS OUR MOST ESSENTIAL SOCIAL TOOL AND TEACHING CHILDREN TO COMMUNICATE IS THE "BASIC OF THE BASICS".

ALL WE KNOW, ALL WE FEAR AND ALL WE HOPE IS CREATED AND CONVEYED THROUGH SYMBOLS. THROUGH LANGUAGE WE ESTABLISH WHO WE ARE, EXTEND OUR UNDERSTANDING, ENRICH OUR LIVES AND BUILD RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS. THE SOPHISTICATION OF LANGUAGE DOES, IN FACT, SEPARATE US FROM ALL OTHER FORMS OF LIFE.

CLEAR WRITING AND CLEAR SPEAKING REFLECT CLEAR THINKING, AND ALL STUDENTS MUST BE TAUGHT THE EFFECTIVE USE OF LANGUAGE.

THIS LEADS TO AN IMPORTANT POINT. WE COMMUNICATE -- NOT JUST WITH WORDS -- BUT WITH OTHER SYMBOLS TOO. IN OUR SOPHISTICATED CULTURE WE SEND MESSAGES THROUGH THE VISUAL ARTS, AND MATHEMATICS, AND MUSIC, AND WITH DANCE, AND IT IS ESSENTIAL THAT STUDENTS ARE INTRODUCED TO THE FULL RANGE OF COMMUNICATION THROUGH WHICH HUMAN FEELINGS AND IDEAS ARE EXPRESSED.

* * *

MR. CHAIRMAN, I AM CONVINCED THAT MANY STATES AND LOCAL SCHOOLS ARE NOW GIVING TOP PRIORITY TO THE FUNDAMENTALS --

WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON READING, WRITING AND MATHEMATICS.

ALMOST EVERY STATE HAS A PROGRAM TO IMPROVE THESE SKILLS AND, AS SECRETARY CALIFANO POINTED OUT, THE NUMBER OF STATES THAT EVALUATE STUDENT PROGRESS HAS RISEN FROM 4 TO 36 IN THE LAST THREE YEARS.

IN THE STATE OF MICHIGAN, FOR EXAMPLE, A READING AND MATH TEST IS ADMINISTERED IN THE 4TH AND 7TH GRADES. BASED ON TEST RESULTS, THE STATE HAS IDENTIFIED INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS -- NOT DISTRICTS, BUT SCHOOLS -- IN NEED OF SPECIAL HELP. LAST YEAR, 15% OF THE SCHOOLS IN THAT STATE WERE IDENTIFIED AS "HIGH NEED." THE STATE SENDS SPECIALISTS TO THESE SCHOOLS TO WORK WITH TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATORS AND WITH PARENTS.

--IN 1975, 51% OF THE 4TH GRADERS TESTED IN MICHIGAN SCORED IN THE SATISFACTORY RANGE IN READING.

--LAST YEAR, THE NUMBER ROSE TO 62%.

--SEVENTH GRADERS EXPERIENCED A 10% RISE IN SATISFACTORY READING SCORES DURING THE SAME PERIOD.

--AND TWO-THIRDS OF THE "HIGH NEED" BUILDINGS REGISTERED AN IMPROVEMENT.

NEW YORK STATE HAS JUST THIS YEAR IMPLEMENTED A STATEWIDE ASSESSMENT PROGRAM, WITH "CHECKPOINT" TESTS FOR READING AND MATH AT THE 3RD AND 6TH GRADE LEVELS, AND ANOTHER CHECKPOINT TEST --IN READING AND WRITING -- IN JUNIOR HIGH. UNDER THE

NEW YORK PROGRAM, SCHOOL DISTRICTS MUST DEVELOP A REMEDIAL PLAN FOR EVERY STUDENT WHO FALLS BELOW THE EXPECTED ACADEMIC LEVEL.

IN INDIANA, THERE IS NO STATEWIDE ASSESSMENT BUT THE STATE HAS DEVELOPED GUIDELINES FOR LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS TO USE IN DEVELOPING THEIR OWN ASSESSMENT TESTS AND IN CONDUCTING LOCAL PROGRAMS IN THE BASIC SKILLS.

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THERE HAVE BEEN BREAKTHROUGHS AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL TOO. OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA, FOR EXAMPLE, HAS REVERSED A 15 YEAR DECLINE IN TEST SCORES. SINCE 1975, THE CITY HAS DEVELOPED "LEARNING EXPECTATIONS" IN EACH SUBJECT.

EACH STUDENT IS EVALUATED IN OCTOBER. THE RESULTS ARE GIVEN TO THE CLASSROOM TEACHER. ANOTHER ASSESSMENT IS MADE EACH SPRING.

AS A RESULT OF THIS SHARPLY FOCUSED PROGRAM, ALMOST HALF OF OAKLAND'S SCHOOLS ARE -- FOR THE FIRST TIME -- MEETING OR EXCEEDING NATIONAL NORMS.

IN THE MIDST OF ALL THIS ACTIVITY, A SIMPLE FACT EMERGES:

STUDENTS CAN SUCCEED IN SCHOOL IF THE MASTERY OF LANGUAGE IS A TOP PRIORITY AND IF THERE IS ASSESSMENT IN THE EARLY GRADES TO MEASURE STUDENT PROGRESS.

• • •

MR. CHAIRMAN, I ALSO BELIEVE THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT SHOULD BE A PARTNER IN THIS PROCESS.

SPECIFICALLY, SENATOR EAGLETON, THE NEW ESEA TITLE II AUTHORITY -- WHICH YOU VIGOROUSLY SPONSORED -- ADDS A DRAMATIC NEW THRUST TO FEDERAL EDUCATION LEGISLATION. FOR THE FIRST TIME, THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION, STATE AGENCIES, AND LOCAL SCHOOLS WILL BE ABLE TO WORK TOGETHER TO COORDINATE BASIC SKILLS ACTIVITIES.

AS YOU KNOW, TITLE II HAS TWO STATE SUPPORTED PROGRAMS.

--FIRST, THERE IS A FORMULA GRANT PROGRAM (SECTION 222) IN WHICH STATES FUND LOCAL BASIC SKILLS PROJECTS.

--A SECOND SECTION (SECTION 224) GIVES MONEY TO EACH STATE TO SUPPORT STATEWIDE LEADERSHIP.

FRANKLY OUR GOAL IS TO DRAW ON THE STRENGTH OF BOTH OF THESE INITIATIVES. AND IF CONGRESS APPROVES OUR $8.25 MILLION TITLE II PART B REQUEST, WE'LL HAVE OVER $4 MILLION FOR EACH OF THESE TWO ESSENTIAL PROGRAMS.

OUR FURTHER POINT. IN ORDER TO BE ELIGIBLE FOR THESE FUNDS, THE NEW LAW REQUIRES A STATE TO PRESENT A STATEWIDE BASIC SKILLS PLAN. THIS IS THE KEY TO COORDINATION. HOWEVER, INSTEAD OF REQUIRING A RIGID "COOKIE-CUTTER" PLAN, WE'RE ASKING EACH STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO DEVELOP ITS OWN UNIQUE, COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAM -- ONE THAT DESCRIBES WHAT THE STATE HAS ALREADY DONE, WHAT IT PLANS TO DO, AND ITS EXPECTED OUTCOMES.

MR. CHAIRMAN, I'M ENCOURAGED BY THE PROGRESS WE'VE ALREADY MADE. MANY STATES ALREADY HAVE SHOWN KEEN INTEREST IN TITLE II.

• • •

I SHOULD UNDERSCORE THE FACT THAT THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION ALSO HAS A JOB TO DO.

A LITTLE OVER A YEAR AGO, I FORMED A BASIC SKILLS TASK FORCE WITHIN OE. THIS TEAM IDENTIFIED 18 DIFFERENT PROGRAMS IN OUR OFFICE WITH A BASIC SKILLS COMPONENT -- AND UNHAPPILY THOSE WERE NOT COORDINATED.

TO ACHIEVE INCREASED COORDINATION, A NEW BASIC SKILLS OFFICE WILL BE ESTABLISHED IN THE NEWLY FORMED BUREAU OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT. I'M DETERMINED TO TAKE WHATEVER ADMINISTRATIVE STEPS ARE NECESSARY TO EFFECTIVELY SUPPORT THE BASIC SKILLS PLANS DEVELOPED BY THE STATES.

ONE ADDITIONAL POINT. IN AWARDING DISCRETIONARY GRANTS UNDER PART A OF TITLE II, WE PROPOSE THAT APPLICATIONS SUBMITTED BY LOCAL SCHOOLS BE REVIEWED BY THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT TO CERTIFY THAT THE PROPOSED PROJECT IS CONSISTENT

WITH THE STATEWIDE PLAN. OF COURSE, THE FINAL GRANT DECISION WILL BE MADE IN THE COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE.

ALL OF THESE MOVES SUGGEST THAT, FOR THE FIRST TIME, A COORDINATED LITERACY PROGRAM IS BEGINNING TO EMERGE.

* * *

MR. CHAIRMAN, OUR GOAL IS CLEAR. WE MUST TEACH EVERY CHILD TO READ AND WRITE DURING THE FIRST THREE YEARS OF FORMAL EDUCATION SINCE SUCCESS IN SCHOOL AND IN LIFE ITSELF IS BASED ON THESE FUNDAMENTAL SKILLS.

FURTHER, I BELIEVE THIS OBJECTIVE CAN BE REACHED. AFTER ALL, BY THE TIME CHILDREN COME TO SCHOOL:

--THEY HAVE LEARNED THE PROFOUNDLY COMPLICATED TASK OF LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

--AND THEY'VE LEARNED TO TRANSMIT COMPLICATED MESSAGES OF THEIR OWN. CONVERTING THESE ORAL/AUDITORY SYMBOLS WHICH THEY'VE MASTERED INTO WRITTEN SYMBOLS IS THE NEXT SEQUENTIAL STEP. AGAIN, I'M CONVINCED ALL CHILDREN CAN MASTER THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE JUST AS THEY MASTER SPEECH IF THE GOALS ARE CLEAR, AND THE TEACHING FULLY ADEQUATE.

* * *

SCHOOLS, HOWEVER, CANNOT DO IT ALL ALONE. WE MUST HAVE A CLOSER PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN THE CLASSROOM AND THE HOME.

PARENTS SHOULD TURN OFF TV AT TIMES, READ ALOUD, AND DISCOVER WITH THEIR CHILDREN THE BEAUTY OF THE WRITTEN AND

SPOKEN WORK. FOR THIS REASON, OUR 1980 BUDGET REQUEST INCLUDES $1.5 MILLION SPECIFICALLY TO STRENGTHEN THE ROLE OF PARENTS IN TEACHING THEIR CHILDREN BASIC SKILLS.

• • •

SPEAKING OF TELEVISION, I'M CONVINCED TV HAS, IN MANY WAYS, BECOME THE NATION'S MOST IMPORTANT TEACHER. A NEW ELECTRONIC CLASSROOM HAS EMERGED IN EVERY HOME AND ITS IMPACT IS ENORMOUS.

TELEVISION HAS MADE COMMUNICATION MORE FLEETING AND LESS VALUED. AND STUDENTS SOAK UP MESSAGES INSTEAD OF SENDING MESSAGES OF THEIR OWN. AS ONE STUDENT SAID TO ME THE OTHER DAY, "WE GO TO SCHOOL EXPECTING TO BE ENTERTAINED AND ANTICIPATE A COMMERCIAL EVERY 13½ MINUTES."

BUT WE MISS THE POINT IF TELEVISION IS DISMISSED AS A MENACE OR AS A THREAT TO FORMAL EDUCATION. THIS NEW ELECTRONIC TEACHER TAKES STUDENTS ALL AROUND THE WORLD, LANDS THEM ON THE MOON AND OPENS WINDOWS TO THE WORLD THAT INSPIRE AND ENRICH.

CLEARLY, THE TWO GREAT INFORMATION CENTERS OF OUR TIME, THE CLASSROOM AND TELEVISION, MUST COMPLEMENT, RATHER THAN COMPETE. WE NEED TO TEACH CHILDREN HOW TO LIVE IN OUR VIDEO CULTURE. THEY MUST LEARN HOW TO SPOT A STEREOTYPE, RECOGNIZE A PREMISE, ISOLATE A CLICHE, DISTINGUISH FACT FROM PROPAGANDA AND ANALYSIS FROM BANTER.

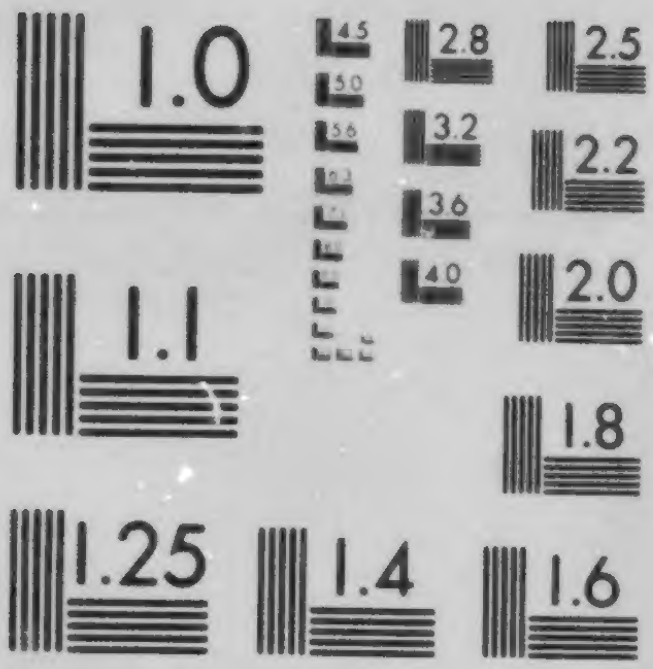
AND IF THE GREAT TELEVISION PROGRAMS -- ROOTS QUICKLY COMES TO MIND -- CAN BE LINKED TO THE CLASSROOM WITH READING MATERIALS FOR THE STUDENT AND THE TEACHER, I'M CONVINCED THE IMPACT WILL BE ENORMOUS.

THE USEFULNESS OF TV IS DIRECTLY RELATED TO BASIC SKILLS. SESAME STREET INTRODUCES MILLIONS OF CHILDREN TO PHONOMES AND TO WORDS AND TO THE NUMBER SYSTEM LONG BEFORE THEY GO TO SCHOOL. NEXT TO TITLE I, SESAME STREET IS PROBABLY THE MOST OUTSTANDING EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT IN WHICH THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION HAS PARTICIPATED. TODAY, OVER 15 MILLION CHILDREN WATCH SESAME STREET EVERY DAY AND THE PROGRAM IS AIRED IN 15 DIFFERENT LANGUAGES. THROUGH PROGRAMS SUCH AS THIS, CHILDREN CAN ACCELERATE THEIR MASTERY OF LANGUAGES. CLEARLY OUR CHALLENGE IS TO BRING TOGETHER TELEVISION AND THE CLASSROOM TO PROMOTE EXCELLENCE IN EDUCATION.

* * *

FINALLY, MR. CHAIRMAN, IF CHILDREN DO NOT LEARN THE FUNDAMENTALS, IF THEY DO NOT MASTER LANGUAGE, IF THEY DO NOT LEARN HOW EFFECTIVELY TO SEND AND RECEIVE SYMBOLS, THEY WILL FAIL ACADEMICALLY AND THEY WILL FAIL SOCIALLY AS WELL.

IF, HOWEVER, OUR SCHOOLS GIVE PRIORITY TO THE MASTERY OF LANGUAGE, IF STUDENT PROGRESS IS ASSESSED, IF PARENTS ARE PARTNERS IN THE PROCESS AND THE POTENTIAL OF TECHNOLOGY IS EMPLOYED, I BELIEVE THE HIGH EXPECTATIONS THIS COUNTRY HAS ASSIGNED TO EDUCATION WILL BE MET.



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20208

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

TESTIMONY OF

DR. PATRICIA ALBJERG GRAHAM

DIRECTOR, NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

BEFORE THE

SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND HUMANITIES

OF THE

SENATE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES

MARCH 28, 1979

Mr. Chairman, Members of the Subcommittee on Education, Arts, and Humanities, I am Patricia Albjerg Graham, Director of the National Institute of Education (NIE), the principal agency in the Federal government concerned with conducting educational research.

I am pleased to have this opportunity to testify on the problems associated with improving achievement in the basic skills. This distinguished subcommittee has shaped and enacted legislation which has made fundamental contributions to the improvement of education in our society, and these hearings provide clear evidence of the subcommittee's continuing concern with the quality of our schools.

The subject of the hearings before the subcommittee--the status of student achievement in the basic skills--is a subject of widespread concern among members of the public and elected and appointed public officials. That concern is appropriate, but I think it is also wise to note that the evidence we have available on student achievement is mixed.

DECLINING STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

Let us consider, first, several reports which have appeared in newspapers in recent years:

- a September 1975 College Entrance Examination Board study indicating a consistent 10-year decline in both the verbal and mathematics score averages on the Scholastic Aptitude

Test (SAT)--a test in wide use to help colleges and universities select the best qualified applicants for admission;

- 1970 and 1971 surveys by Louis Harris and Associates indicating that perhaps as many as 18 million adults possess inadequate reading skills;
- major stories on functional illiteracy which have appeared in the New York Times, The Washington Post, Newsweek, The Saturday Review, and U.S. News and World Report from 1970 to the present time;
- evidence of the need to provide compensatory instruction in reading and writing to first-year college students;
- anecdotal stories in print and in conversation of high school, and indeed, college graduates unable to complete the simple computations needed to hold the most unskilled jobs.

All told, the picture arising from these reports is not sanguine,--indeed it is appalling--and it has led some critics to mount scathing indictments of our schools and to the enactment in 36 states of minimum competency tests of one kind or another.

Additional data collected over time, while not as widely publicized, confirm what appears to be a general decline in student achievement:

- the American College Testing results demonstrate declines in the composite (verbal and math) average from 1969 through 1978;
- according to the National Assessment of Educational Progress,

the achievement of 17-year olds in writing, the natural sciences, and political knowledge declined between 1969 and 1974;

- Iowa's statewide testing program demonstrates a consistent 10-year decline from 1966 in vocabulary, quantitative reasoning, ability to express oneself, and knowledge of literature, social studies, and the natural sciences, for students in the sixth grade and beyond;
- the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) points to a national decline in grades 6 through 10 in reading, language, and mathematics between 1968 and 1973.

MORE POSITIVE NEWS

But before we despair of the breakdown in our schools, it is wise to look at evidence on the other side of the scale--evidence indicating that while there is still much to be done, Americans can continue to place their confidence in our schools.

The evidence is of three kinds. First, although accomplishment in the middle and later school years is declining, achievement in the early grades is not going down, but is, indeed, improving.

Second, our schools are educating a vastly different population today than they were a generation ago.

Finally, any reasonable comparison of our schools with those abroad demonstrates how singular is the achievement of the American school system.

Let me say a word about each of these topics.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE EARLY YEARS

A fundamental and important distinction which must be borne in mind in considering student achievement in the basic skills is that all of the data point in one direction: student achievement is falling behind earlier levels only if we examine grades 5 or 6 and above. From grades 1 through four, achievement tests are rising over time.

All of the data on achievement decline cited earlier relate to the middle and upper grades. But the very same data bases provide evidence of improvement in the early grades.

For example:

- according to the National Assessment of Educational Progress, nine-year old, i.e., 3rd and 4th grade students, improved in both reading and writing between 1970 and 1974;
- the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills provides evidence of improved student achievement in reading and mathematics for second, third, and fourth grade students between 1968 and 1973;
- the statewide Iowa testing program demonstrates similar gains in the early years;
- NIE's study of compensatory programs--the most comprehensive study of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education

> Act completed to date—demonstrated the effectiveness of concentrated instruction for low-achieving children in grades 1 and 3. I am confident that we would have found similar results in grades 2 and 4.

The contrast between improved performance in the early grades and disappointing results in later years explains why Christopher Jencks explains:

> The trouble, then, is not with "the basics" but with what for lack of a better term we might call "complex" skills.

POPULATION CHANGES

The second point I want to make is that our schools are educating a far different kind of student today than they were a generation ago.

In 1947, for example, only 54% of the 17 year old population graduated from high school. Today, the proportion is 75%. The direction of this shift has been steady throughout this century—only 6% of our youth completed high school in 1900.

Now traditionalists might argue that these figures simply demonstrate the devaluation of the high school degree. Leaving that to one side, the figures illustrate an important problem in comparing high school students of today with their predecessors: They are not, to this society's credit, alike and they should not be compared as if they were.

A more meaningful comparison would be one which removed from the current high school population the poor, the minorities, the handicapped, and the bilingual, and compared those remaining with their counterparts of 10 or twenty years ago.

In fact, the only long-term data we have bearing on this issue are the results of the Scholastic Aptitude Test. And these results bear the assertion out: according to the final report of the Advisory Panel on the Scholastic Aptitude Test Score Decline, chaired by former Secretary of Labor, Willard Wirtz, between two-thirds and three-fourths of the SAT score decline between 1963 and 1970 can be attributed to the fact that the "notable extension and expansion of educational opportunity in the United States" drastically changed the composition of the students taking the SAT's.

This expansion of educational opportunity was a major part of the focus of the keynote address delivered by Harold Howe II to the National Conference on Achievement Testing and the Basic Skills. Mr. Howe, who is now a member of NIE's National Council on Educational Research told the conference:

> If one were able to select at random half a million 18-year olds from 1938 and another half a million in 1978--high school graduates and non-graduates--and give them almost any achievement test, the 1978 group would perform significantly better. The general levels of knowledge, literacy and skill of today's youth are higher than they were forty years ago.....

On the other side of the coin, if those selected at random in 1938 and 1978 were all high school graduates, the comparison would be reversed, and the students of 1938 would score higher. The high school graduates of 1938 were a select group compared to those of forty years later.....

COMPARISONS WITH OTHER SYSTEMS

The final piece of good news I want to emphasize, comes from an International Education Assessment conducted in the late 1960's and early 1970's.

In a paper prepared by Ralph W. Tyler, director emeritus of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, "American Education in the Perspective of Education in Other Nations," we find the following:

- only the 14-year olds of New Zealand and Finland outperform American fourteen-year olds in reading--England, Sweden, Japan, Australia, Hungary, Scotland and Italy did less well;
- yet at the time of the assessment the United States was retaining nearly 80% of the age group through the final year of secondary school--only Japan which retained 70% of the age group came close to this figure, most of the other countries retained about one-third of the proportion retained here.

Very clearly, our educational system permits most of our youth to attain levels of literacy that many other nations provide for only a select few.

WHERE WE ARE

Where does all of this apparently contradictory evidence leave us? I believe a reasonable summary of the evidence to date is as follows:

(1) While there is much wrong with our schools, there is also a great deal with which we can be satisfied;

(2) We have been able to make significant progress with very young children, and we must now extend that progress to the upper grades;

(3) It is likely that the most severe difficulties we will face in that effort will be experienced with students who were probably not served at all a generation ago, and are not being well-served by our schools today.

EXTERNAL CHANGES

Mr. Chairman, before I discuss my optimism about the possibilities of helping schools improve, I do want to make note of several changes in our society and our schools which may well have contributed to some of the problems we are addressing.

Changes in the American Family have been widespread although we have absolutely no evidence one way or the other about the effects on achievement:

- the number of children living with both parents declined from 89% in 1960 to 80% today;
- the number of children in divorced families has doubled in the past ten years;
- family mobility and consequent school changes have become an American phenomenon;

Common sense indicates that these changes effect children profoundly, but much of the analysis of these issues from an educational point of view is inconclusive.

The Traditional Role of Parent as Teacher has become more difficult in the past decade in light of curricular changes according to some observers. Parents have traditionally been willing, indeed eager, to complement the teacher and the school by reinforcing learning and helping their children with homework. In some courses, particularly mathematics, that has become more difficult since many parents no longer understand the subject matter.

Television has undoubtedly had an effect, although it might differ depending upon the student's age. What evidence there is is inconclusive:

- by the age of 16, children may easily spend as much as 15,000 hours watching television--more time than they have spent in school;
- the widely-known and generally respected educational programs such as Sesame Street undoubtedly give children a faster start on numbers and letters;

- these shows do not, however, account for improvement in the early grades since most of their audience consists of middle and upper-middle class youngsters who have traditionally done well in school;
- it is however, undoubtedly true, in the words of the Wirtz report, that television is a "thief" of time that might be used for homework, reading, or writing;
- television, which teaches through a visual presentation made to an inactive learner may provide useful opportunities for new teaching strategies—nevertheless it does not develop the critical, active reading skills essential to success in traditional classes and in typical testing situations.

SCHOOL FACTORS

In addition to these societal changes, there appear to have been significant changes within our schools.

Academic Course Enrollment Decline may be a factor in decreased achievement at the upper grade levels. Between 1970-71 and 1972-73, according to an NIE funded study at CEMREL in St. Louis, enrollment in traditional academic courses dropped remarkably:

- English - down 8.0%
- Foreign Languages - down 13.0%
- History - remained steady
- Remedial Math up 80%
- General Math - down 15%

- College Prep. Math - remained steady
- Natural Sciences - down 13%
- Biological Sciences up 15%

Grade Inflation may also be a significant problem. An annual survey of entering college freshman indicates that this year's freshman have better high school grades then any entering college class since the survey began in 1966. UCLA professor Alexander Astin who conducts the survey states that in light of declining SAT scores, "it seems clear that grading standards have been steadily declining since the late 1960's." Two-thirds of the entering freshmen agreed that grading had become easier. An American College Teaching Program study confirms the Astin report: between 1962 and 1975 A's and B's in English increased 25% among college bound seniors.

School Absenteeism became a severe problem from the late 1960's through the mid-70's. A 1975 report from the National Association of Secondary School Principals identified absenteeism as "the most perplexing student problem..." with rates of 15% common and up to 25% not unusual. Excessive student absenteeism hurts both the missing students and those in attendance if teachers feel they have to repeat work.

High School Texts seem increasingly to be "written down." A preliminary investigation by the Wirtz panel found high school texts to be written at a 9th or 10th grade level and increasingly devoted to pictures and attractive layouts at the expense of exposition and

explanation. Moreover, the texts encourage multiple choice or single-response answers at the expense of writing and reasoning.

IMPROVEMENT IN EARLY ACHIEVEMENT

Mr. Chairman, perhaps the most encouraging news to come out of our schools in the last several years is that we can demonstrate our ability successfully to educate children in the early years. This is true for children we would expect to have the most difficult time in school--low-achieving children in low-income areas.

I believe we can attribute this success to at least two factors: (1) the concentration of Federal, state, and local resources upon improving education in the early years; and (2) the traditional emphasis on educational and related research upon growth and development in the early years, particularly children's cognitive development.

With respect to the concentration of resources, Federal funds such as those for Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Head Start, and Follow Through, have been focused largely upon the early years. NIE's evaluation of Title I, for example, found that virtually all Title I dollars are spent on programs in kindergarten through grade 8, with the most expenditures evident in the first five grades.

I believe most of us agree with this focus, given limitations on funds, because if we permit children to fall behind in the very early years, retrieving them later becomes more difficult.

In addition to these Federal efforts, I think that major state and local efforts to share more equitably school finance burdens and dollars has also contributed to additional resources in low-income areas.

But money alone is not the sole resource. In addition, we know far more today about the cognitive development of young children--and hence about appropriate instructional and curricular strategies--than we do about the development of older children. The reason for this state of affairs is fairly straightforward: research funds, like Federal program funds, have been concentrated on the early years.

An example from the area of reading research will perhaps be helpful.

We believe that as a result of research on reading we can now teach almost any child in the early grades how to read, i.e., translate written letters into words and sentences. Researchers call the acquisition of this type of reading skill "decoding," and it is normally attained, at the latest, by the end of the fourth grade.

What neither researchers nor teachers can fully explain is what happens at the next step: some children are able to use their reading ability to learn other new material, and others appear unable to understand the meaning lying behind what they are reading.

This problem is one of the most difficult in educational research today, and it appears to affect different children in different ways.

Some can read words, but do not understand sentences. Others are able to work their way through entire sentences, but are unable to make sense out of whole paragraphs. Yet others can get through the passages, but they cannot fully explain the point the author is trying to make.

Researchers refer to this problem as one of "comprehension" and we at NIE are concentrating our research efforts on the shift from "decoding"--understanding the written word--to "comprehension"--understanding what the written word conveys.

We, and the research community, are convinced that this is the area where the next significant improvements in reading and learning research will be made. And since reading is truly fundamental to learning in every area, we believe that this effort will prove central to our hopes of reversing achievement declines in the upper grades.

Mr. Chairman, I do not want to be a Pollyanna about the problems our schools face. Nevertheless, I am confident that our schools can surmount these difficulties as they have overcome others in the past, and that the work NIE supports can help contribute to their efforts.

The schools' success with children in the early grades augurs well for the future, and mounting research evidence on school effectiveness, as well as our own plans in the area of literacy and reading, writing, and mathematics improvement, give promise for improvement in the years ahead.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

Our consideration of the issue of effective schools over the past year has helped us formulate a significant new focus for NIE's activities. The focus can be summed up in a question: "What makes a good school?"

Research evidence indicates that the key to improving education involves policies that enable local school staff, students, and the community to improve their own performance. This reasoning undergirded the development of the Title II Basic Skills Improvement Program which this committee approved.

While we continue to need long-term advances in our understanding, the most urgently needed new departure is a program of studies that combines what we already know from research with the savvy of experienced practitioners in a form that will be helpful to those working at the local school level. We have discussed such an approach with the National Council on Educational Research. We are greatly encouraged by their positive response, and by that of other members of the educational community who have also reviewed this approach.

Mr. Chairman, before I describe what we are doing in this area, let me say just a word about our focus on schools.

I think it essential that we not make the mistake of equating education and learning solely with schooling.

Nevertheless, we cannot underestimate the importance of the role of the schools in educating children, particularly those with whom schools traditionally have had little success.

As a research agency, therefore, NIE concentrates upon the school not because it is the sole determinant of education but because: (1) it is the only agency devoted primarily to education; and (2) whether publicly or privately supported the school serves a public function and is, therefore, suitable for examination by a government agency.

With respect to our new school initiative so far we have completed one activity: the deployment of staff and resources to accelerate our identification of the characteristics of good schools from the research literature and from the experience of successful educators.

The conclusion of our initial inquiries can be summed up as follows: There are many clues from completed research studies identifying specific factors contributing to high educational achievement, but there are fewer instances where entire schools have been able to combine these elements over a period of time to produce consistently (and unexpectedly) high achievement for their students. The clues are:

- if teachers expect more from a student, they often get it;
- good schools require principals who are firm, fair, consistent and encouraging to teachers and students;
- if students spend more time each day learning to read, they learn to read better;
- a stable environment (same school, integrated curricula and similar teaching styles over the grades), helps students learn;
- parent participation (more at home than school) helps students learn;

- some traditional policies (e.g., slightly smaller classes) have little or no independent effect on achievement--although a recent NIE-funded study by Eugene Glass came to the conclusion that if student-teacher ratios can be reduced to 15 or 16 to 1, achievement gains are significant.

In hindsight, many (though not all) of these "findings" seem like little more than the verification of common sense. The fact is, however, that attempts at educational improvement often overlook one or more of these basic truths of schooling. An even more painful fact, and one that continues to defy common sense, is that these more or less proven and inherently straightforward practices when implemented together in the schools often have mixed effects or no positive effect at all.

To go beyond what we now know, we feel that two further considerations are involved:

(1) Understanding why it is that individual schools have a difficult time "getting their act together" to improve student performance;

(2) Outlining appropriate federal roles that will benefit the individual school without intruding upon State and school district prerogatives.

The long-term program that we have started to build includes three components: leadership, research, and communication.

Leadership: Our schools must articulate two themes:

- Literacy for all. We cannot for any reason allow segments of

the student population to become adults without the skills necessary to participate in our society as competent citizens. If the schools or their constituents have invented double standards that provide less for, or demand less of, particular students, these standards must be scrapped.

- Schools can succeed in teaching the basic literacy skills. There are examples of schools which have succeeded in this task, without abandoning other objectives or installing oppressive regimens. The numbers of such schools can be increased best, we believe, by the mobilization of local school communities into concerted action, not by more extensive Federal legislation.

Research: Undergirding this message would be a research program of distinctive character, focusing on our question "what makes a good school?" The work will consist of:

- the review and assessment of enormous bodies of empirical research;
- field studies of successful schools to capture the elements of their success;
- systematically tapping the experience of practitioners;
- intensive reviews of special topics such as urban schools or newly desegregated schools;
- fitting it all together into theories that help local school officials and citizens see the wholeness of the problem of the individual local school and the interconnectedness of potentially successful strategies to improve it.

Performing this task will require both imaginative researchers and reflective practitioners, who will cover this ground from a variety of perspectives, building a body of understanding, each learning from the other.

Communication: No one changes his or her mind very quickly on educational matters. Moreover, the evidence is that there has to be a convergence of the views of many independent actors (administrator, teacher, parent, student) if proposed improvements are to succeed. The new communication activities could include.

- the creation of national and regional forums for the discussion of school improvement strategies, including television and radio initiatives, and regular national and regional conferences on selected issues.
- continuous initiatives to publicize important findings through professional journals and the popular press;
- developing through school staff development activities specific materials which address the needs of classroom teachers, principals, and administrators;
- fostering regional institutions to perform these research and communication functions for groups of States, groups of cities or other geographic units with similar educational interests.

The full implementation of all of these plans is beyond NIE's immediate resources; but these are paths we intend to explore as vigorously as possible over the next two years.

If these plans come fully to function, we will be well on our way to providing practical advice to schools on the structural and organizational characteristics essential to school improvement.

Without such structural and organizational characteristics we will see little if any, school improvement. Nevertheless, they will not in and of themselves guarantee it. In some areas we still need far more dependable knowledge about children's learning than we now possess.

And as I have earlier tried to stress, in my discussion of reading research, we need this knowledge not so much in the very elementary stages as in the development of more complex skills of abstraction, reasoning, synthesis, and the fashioning of generalizations.

LITERACY

In an effort to make a start on this area, one of the major themes of NIE's 1980 budget is literacy, by which I mean the mastery of such essential skills as reading, writing, and computation.

Under the rubric of literacy we contemplate four major efforts:

- research and analysis of literacy requirements;
- a focus on reading comprehension;
- research on writing and its contribution to the development of more complex skills; and
- research on mathematics learning.

Literacy: There is virtually no accepted standard for what constututes literacy in this society. During both world wars, the

military equated functional literacy with a fourth-grade reading level. Practically everyone today would set a higher standard, but there is little agreement on what that standard should be.

In an attempt to shed some light on this issue one of our efforts will focus on the kinds of reading and writing required in this society. We are, for example, examining these requirements as they relate to the business world at different levels of the hierarchy--from the least skilled to the executive officer. This kind of information should help us provide our schools with a greater understanding of the skills required in different real-life situations.

An area of special concern in literacy has always been the adult illiterate. To provide a better knowledge base on which to build and improve important ongoing basic adult education programs, we are now preparing a large-scale study of adult learning characteristics, in particular, of adult learning in everyday life.

Finally, we have initiated a project based on the premise that reading requirements in the United States may, in some instances, be unreasonably high because the written materials of specialized professions--such as legislators, lawyers, bankers, insurance brokers, not to mention educational researchers--are unnecessarily difficult. For example, last year, in helping the General Accounting Office (GAO) examine IRS form 1040, we found that the instructions, written at the 12th grade reading level, were beyond the understanding of 13 million

adults. I want to emphasize that these adults are not unintelligent or illiterate by any reasonable definition--they are simply not accustomed to reading extremely complicated and difficult prose.

We are, therefore, funding a three-year project designed to draw upon existing knowledge of the levels of difficulty of reading matter to help public and private agencies produce more readily understandable documents.

Reading Comprehension: I have already explained that we are in the process of shifting the emphasis of the research we support from the fairly simple reading process of decoding to the more complicated one of comprehension.

We are not beginning this task from scratch since some clues are already available from work completed in linguistics and cognitive psychology:

- comprehension is not simply a matter of remembering word associations but involves higher order mental processes such as abstraction and generalization;
- good readers seem to develop strategies for discerning new information for immediate understanding and memorization--poorer readers have difficulty differentiating the new from the old;
- moreover, good readers integrate new information with what they already know.

Mr. Chairman, we believe that ongoing research funded by NIE—examining, for example, how children monitor their own comprehension and recognize when they are incorrect, or studying inadequacies of textual materials that contribute to comprehension problems—gives promise of helping resolve some of the problems in the area of comprehension.

Writing Research: Of increasing concern both in and out of school is the poor quality of writing in our society.

The evidence for widespread decline in people's writing ability is of two kinds, anecdotal and formal. First, there are the accumulated, informal observations of employers who complain that secretaries cannot spell or proofread and that middle-level managers cannot communicate in writing. University faculty members are also increasing their complaints that freshmen are in need of remedial writing instruction.

Second, there are formal reports such as those from the National Assessment of Educational Progress documenting the declines in both the overall quality of essays written by seventeen-years old and in the number of high-quality essays written by the same age group. These students do not have difficulty with mechanics such as punctuation and spelling; nevertheless, their sentences are awkward and their paragraphs, incoherent.

What these reports indicate is the need to develop better ways of helping students organize and express their thinking.

The elusive relationships between and among logic, thinking, and writing began to occupy the serious attention of researchers only about ten years ago. Since then, efforts to identify and describe the nature of writing have produced as many questions as they have answers about what is actually involved in writing. Because NIE is almost the sole source of funding for this type of fundamental research in writing, we have assumed responsibility for supporting projects which we hope will lead to more productive learning and teaching in the area of writing.

To insure results in this new research program, we are supporting several kinds of inquiry on writing: (1) studies of finished writing products; (2) studies of the process of writing, and (3) a research program on writing instruction.

Studies of written products currently focus on how student's writing reflects organization of ideas, how specific linguistic devices such as reference and association affect coherence, at what ages children begin to use these devices in their writing, and the extent to which we can infer developmental stages and learning processes from that writing.

Studies of writing processes examine how people select words to match their ideas and intentions, what problem-solving approaches they

use during writing and how these affect fluency, and finally, how reading and writing processes are related. These studies will enable us to clarify the cognitive components of writing and to relate this knowledge to current conceptions of writing instruction.

Finally, we are beginning a research program to examine writing instruction. Of particular interest to NIE are the characteristics and conditions of this instruction at different grade levels. In the elementary grades, for example, the primacy of reading instruction often obscures the need for special concentration on writing. Moreover, elementary school teachers have generally had little training in how to teach writing in the early grades, and the correction of written material is very time consuming. Therefore, one of our projects will be an attempt to describe specific characteristics of effective writing instruction in the elementary grades. We are also supporting work at CEMREL, a laboratory in St. Louis, aimed at translating the writing instruction theory used in national writing assessments to practical application in the classroom. A pamphlet, produced for teachers, will explain ways of using this theory to organize instruction.

From this research on writing instruction we also hope to learn more about the relationship between the knowledge teachers have about learning to write and ways that they apply that knowledge in planning, organizing and responding to student writing.

Mathematics: The need for an understanding of mathematics on the part of all citizens is increasing in our ever-more complex society. Unfortunately, the generally disappointing experiences of schools with the "new math" has left many of us skeptical about efforts to improve and reform mathematics instruction. While the reasons for the disappointment of the new math are complex two factors upon which there exists general agreement are (1) the reeducation of one million elementary school teachers was virtually impossible and certainly not done effectively; and (2) the subject matter experts who developed these curricula, mainly mathematicians, had little understanding of how children learn.

An additional difficulty involved in improving mathematics instruction is that research to date on mathematics learning has several limitations:

- most comes from doctoral students who rarely pursue their research beyond their dissertations;
- there has been poor communication between people in mathematics education and others in relevant fields such as mathematics itself and psychology;
- a large amount of research in mathematics learning has been done on questions not everyone agrees are the central ones--for example, researchers have spent considerable time investigating word problems which often are artifical situations thinly disguising computational exercises.

Mr. Chairman, because more attention has been paid to reading research than to investigations of mathematics learning we do not have nearly as well-developed a knowledge base on mathematics as we do on reading. Our efforts to date, therefore, have focused upon defining several central issues of importance to teachers, mathematicians, and math educators.

We have in the past supported two kindergarten-through grade six curricula--Wisconsin's traditional Developmental Mathematical Processes Program and CEMREL's innovative Comprehensive School Mathematics Program, which represents the best of the new math. As these programs are implemented in schools we will have an excellent opportunity to examine the problems of implementing mathematics curricular change and the difficulties teachers face with new materials.

In 1977, we initiated a program of research in mathematics learning which is being supplemented in a joint program with the National Science Foundation. In making funding decisions in these grants competitions we lean heavily towards projects which promise to illuminate student learning of appropriate mathematical skills as defined by a 1976 report of the National Council of Supervisors of Mathematics.

Finally, just this past year we funded several projects aimed at examining the nature and consequences of mathematics anxiety in girls and women.

A SUMMARY

Mr. Chairman let me quickly summarize what I have been saying this morning:

- there is widespread concern about what is happening in our schools and about how effectively our children are being educated;
- changing family and social structures undoubtedly contribute to school effectiveness, but it is so far nearly impossible to say in what ways or how much;
- although the evidence on student achievement in the middle and upper grades does give cause for concern, the evidence available on young children indicates that we are turning the corner in the basic or foundation skills;
- prior research on how to encourage acquisition of the basic skills has been an important element in improving the learning of young children;
- building upon what we know about school improvement, and early learning, NIE has charted an ambitious research agenda in two areas: (1) What makes a good school? and (2) How can we improve literacy in this society.

Mr. Chairman, since assuming the position of Director of the National Institute of Education nearly two years ago I have insisted that our legislative mandate directs us to focus our work squarely on two issues: (1) Equity—by which I mean doing research to reduce the predictive value of race, sex, social class, or national origin on

educational achievement; and (2) contributing to the improvement of local educational practice.

Both of NIE's missions are reflected in this committee's concern with schooling and the basic skills. Achievement deficiencies are clearly a dominant problem for local practitioners and parents and they are frequently found among the populations which have not, traditionally, been well served by our schools.

Mr. Chairman although our plans may be ambitious, they seem to us to be practical and realistically grounded in one of the most significant educational problems facing us today.

Although we cannot produce all of the answers this year or next, our goals can be met if our work is supported with adequate patience and resources.

We look forward to working with you, and the other members of the committee, in making progress toward those goals.

Senator EAGLETON. The committee is adjourned.
[Whereupon, at 11:50 a.m., the subcommittee adjourned.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

TUESDAY, APRIL 3, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANTIES,
COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Boston, Mass.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 9:45 a.m. at English High School, Avenue Louis Pasteur, Boston, Mass., Senator Thomas F. Eagleton presiding pro tempore.

Present: Senator Eagleton.

OPENING STATEMENT OF SENATOR EAGLETON

Senator EAGLETON. Today marks the fifth day of hearings by the Senate Education, Arts and Humanities Subcommittee on basic skills achievement in our Nation's schools.

Polls have shown that 65 percent of the parents in this country do not believe that their children are receiving adequate instruction in basic skills. Translated into numbers, parents of 32.5 million children do not think their children are receiving a good basic education.

In response to this widespread dissatisfaction with academic performance, 15 States have adopted minimal competency standards as a high school graduation requirement. Nine States require similar testing as a requirement for promotion from junior high to senior high school.

The problem of academic excellence is serious, although hardly new.

I recently reviewed the results of a "then and now" study comparing reading skills among a large urban system's students over a 20-year span. The test scores revealed that the later generation of students outperformed their forebears in grades 2 to 3, but from the fourth grade on, the earlier generation was way ahead in reading ability. That study sounds like it might have been reported on the front page of this morning's Boston Globe. In fact, the study to which I refer was completed 51 years ago.

The longevity of the basic skills debate testifies to the absence of a facile solution. But if there is an answer to these problems, I firmly believe it will be found within the local schools. That is our reason for coming here today—to listen firsthand to the problems encountered in the classrooms by teachers, superintendents, parents, and educational research community.

During its last session, Congress authorized a new basic skills program as part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments of 1978. The program is designed to support both

States and local school districts in expanding and improving their basic skills education programs.

The focus of today's hearing, and of others to follow, will be to define the most appropriate assistance the Federal Government can provide to local educators.

In order to create a real impact with a modest sum of Federal money, we must have a clear understanding of the nature and extent of your problems, of the various approaches you have taken to deal with these problems, and with the applicability of your solutions to other learning situations across the country.

I come into these hearings with no chips on my shoulder for or against any particular educational theory, except for one which I trust we all share: that education always will need the care and attention of those who want to help it get better and better.

I have no specific new legislation in mind as a goal of these hearings; I foresee no quick fix solutions to declining basic skills achievements; and I have no disposition to see things either as any better or as any worse than they actually are.

I will count these hearings as a success if they can give to the American people and to the Congress a clear and balanced view of the current basic skills achievement situation in our schools, and if they provide practical wisdom and operation guidance for those who will administer the new basic skills title of the ESEA amendments.

For me, personally, the inclusion of that special section on reading, writing, and computing skills was a very satisfying, in fact, very good, achievement. It represents the first time all three skills have been addressed by Congress in specific education legislation.

I look forward to maximizing the effectiveness of this new program in any way that I can, and I hope these hearings will be a vehicle toward that goal.

I gratefully welcome all of our witnesses here today, and I look forward to receiving your testimony.

STATEMENT OF DR. GREGORY R. ANRIG, COMMISSIONER, MASSACHUSETTS DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Dr. ANRIG. Massachusetts was the first of many States to have proceeded in concert with concerns that you have to improve basic skills in the public schools.

In the case of Massachusetts, a planning or policy review in this area was begun in 1975, and there were many public hearings and much research and consultation.

We found the following points with regard to basic skills:

First, there is general agreement in the public's mind that this is a problem. That agreement is exaggerated, which exceeds some of the facts involved, but it is true that there is such a problem.

Some youngsters are graduating from high school without ability in certain basic skills.

Second, to a large extent, the credibility of the public schools and the educational community, in general, will depend upon the public's perception of vigorous action and vigorous response to this problem area.

Third, that the resolution of this problem should provide for maximum local involvement and leadership.

Fourth, the State board of education has responsibility to lead and to assist so that problem of basic skills improvement is identified appropriately and corrective action is taken locally to address the problem constructively. This is an area where it is very easy to get off in the wrong direction rather than help children.

Five, efforts to improve competency should begin before high school, and I think this is one area we found that focusing on high school graduation was a mistake and we had to start much earlier diagnosing learning needs and adjusting the regular curriculum so that all students can attain minimum standards.

In our judgment and on the basis of our public hearings, emphasis should not be on testing and retention.

As a result of this policy review, the State board of education adopted a policy on basic skills improvement in August 1978, and just the past January has adopted regulations which, in our State, have the power of law to carry out this policy on basic skills improvement. That policy is effective September 1980.

It is in contrast to many other States that we have the support publicly of all the major education associations in the Commonwealth; and I include in that the Massachusetts Teachers Association, which is a State affiliate of the National Education Association.

The Massachusetts Teachers Association was very much involved in the development of this policy and is on record supporting it in many ways.

Let me just tell you what the elements of that policy are.

First, that there should be standards set at three levels with broad public involvement, not only people within the school involved, administrators, and so forth, but also parents, employers, citizens.

These standards shall be set at three levels in reading, writing, computation, listening and speaking.

Second, that there shall be an annual evaluation of these basic skills with reporting to the public so the public will know firsthand how their schools are doing based on the standards that the public has had a hand in changing.

Third, there will be maximum local discretion at early and late elementary levels, both for standards which are set and the tests which are used to measure those standards.

At the secondary level, however, there shall be a common core of standards adopted by the State as part of the regulations.

In measuring—I am speaking extemporaneously. I thought you had had enough prepared statements—there shall be at the secondary level a common core of standards and three—options for testing at the secondary level.

How to measure those standards at the secondary level?

First, they may use a State-developed test and, second, they may draw from commercially available tests from an approved list or, third, they may bring in their own tests which they feel meet the standards and we will review that test and if it does measure——

Senator EAGLETON. Let me ask if you will clarify this for me: At the elementary level, is there going to be one standard test used uniformly throughout the Commonwealth?

Dr. ANRIG. No. What we went through is what you go through in the Congress. You reach a series of compromises, get the support of people to go ahead with a particular law.

In the case of our policy, we try to seek that kind of agreement, so when a policy is adopted, it would be supported by the majority of people who had to carry it out.

The compromise was maximum local discretion at early and late elementary levels and strong State direction at the secondary level.

Senator EAGLETON. At the elementary level, what will a school or the school system be required to do so far as testing, if any?

Dr. ANRIG. By September 1980, each school district will be responsible in setting standards in reading, math and computation at below the third-grade level.

They set the standards by involving teachers, administrators, parents, and employers and they test those standards, report publicly once a year how those youngsters are doing.

Senator EAGLETON. At what elementary grade levels will the student be tested?

Dr. ANRIG. We will allow that to be at the local discretion—by grade 3 for the early elementary and by grade 6 for later elementary.

Senator EAGLETON. At the very least, all students would be tested once by the time they have completed grade 3?

Dr. ANRIG. That is correct.

Senator EAGLETON. And once more by the time they complete grade 6?

Dr. ANRIG. That is correct.

Senator EAGLETON. Some school systems want to test annually.

Dr. ANRIG. We are trying to balance cost with results.

Senator EAGLETON. You mentioned there would be reports to the public.

Will P.S. 182 in the Boston school system, hypothetically, will there be a public announcement of the third-grade reading scores of P.S. 182.

Dr. ANRIG. Yes, sir.

Senator EAGLETON. Is that whether they are above the norm or at the norm or below the norm?

The individual scores of Johnny Jones will not be printed in the newspapers.

Dr. ANRIG. We have very strict privacy laws.

Senator EAGLETON. Will the parents be mailed a copy of Johnny's third-grade test?

Dr. ANRIG. Not only notified but given an opportunity to see the test. Very often we get those numbers but you want to know how did my youngster do on the particular problems. There is a requirement to see the test and have it explained to you.

Senator EAGLETON. If the Cambridge school system has a different test that it would agree to do under your package, a parent in the Boston public schools would not be able to very readily compare the reading skills of his or her youngster vis-a-vis a third-grade student in Cambridge.

Dr. ANRIG. You have obviously spent time studying this subject. You are quite correct.

We were not trying to get a comparison from one district to another but rather that the citizens in the district would know how their schools were doing.

Senator EAGLETON. We live in a highly mobile age. I used to know the statistics, the number of times parents and families moved, either from a neighborhood or from one school district to another and quite frequently across State lines.

There is a high degree of mobility.

Would it be useful to have, at the very least a statewide standard test or, perish the thought, a national test, so that Mr. and Mrs. Jones would be able to compare Johnny to the whole country and the test would move with Johnny as his parents moved to a new State or new school district?

Dr. ANRIG. This is heresy for a State bureaucrat to say: I don't believe there is any sanctity in uniformity. I think the key thing in education is to deal with the individual child and to not give a value to a test score or scores which are separate from how it will help a youngster.

It would not help to have that transferred. There are so many negative things that go with that with regard to potential discrimination, potential misuse of a test that I think we would lose very much.

Senator EAGLETON. I ask that question as the devil's advocate because I like to get it on the record and I want to make it clear this committee is not espousing and will not espouse a national Federal test. The mere mention causes people to shudder, perhaps thinking of a Federal takeover.

I interrupted you.

Dr. ANRIG. Let me continue on the elements of the Massachusetts policy for basic skills improvement.

The final element is that the plan must describe followup action will be taken to help any youngster who is not meeting the standards.

The key is not to set up a new, separate track—Public Law 94-142, special educational law—not new remedial track.

If the youngster is not meeting what is described as the minimum standard, the obligation falls on the regular educational curriculum and the regular instruction of the schools, and it would be a mistake to say if we have a problem someone else has to take care of it.

One theme in the development of our policy, and it has had the support of teachers: This is a standard which should be placed in the regular educational curriculum, not a separate track. I think that is important to the Federal as well as the State government.

Senator EAGLETON. In the Massachusetts public schools, do they have a multiple-track system; that is, track 1 for high achievers; track 2 for average achievers; and track 3 for low achievers?

Dr. ANRIG. I use that term as shorthand. You are correct to catch me. A track of that kind would be a violation of our State law.

Senator EAGLETON. Notwithstanding that right across the street from us is the Boston Latin School, and that is a track school; one has to pass a certain achievement test in order to be admitted?

Dr. ANRIG. As you get in our larger cities, and this is only true in two of the cities of Massachusetts, there are what you call special examination schools. They are a rarity; they are not a common practice.

I think one of the assets of a city, and this city included, is that youngsters come through a general curriculum up to seven or nine. Specialization after that level, carefully done, in this case under court supervision, can be an attraction of the city to hold the population rather than to lose some of it.

I think there is a special reason for the Boston Latin School, and the Boston Madison Park High School which specializes in music.

Finally, in terms of elements of the policy for basic skills improvement, we have made special provisions for two special populations.

One has to do with the population of handicapped children and the second with the population of bilingual youngsters.

With regard to handicapped children, we have said the decision as to the degree to which they shall be accountable under these minimum standards, shall not be made by State or local school districts; they shall be made by an evaluation team. That includes a panel for this youngster that works on the youngster's educational program across the board.

The decision to include the handicapped is left to the evaluation team.

Senator EAGLETON. Although it is not the subject of this hearing, since you are Commissioner of Education, do you conceptually believe in mainstreaming the handicapped?

Dr. ANRIG. I think mainstreaming is not a good word. It has been so abused.

If you say the handicapped should be in a least restrictive environment, as much as possible kept with the other kids and go out for special help as much as he needs, that is what I call mainstreaming; not dumping youngsters who need special help in a regular education classroom.

I saw the program "60 Minutes" a number of weeks ago for Michigan. That interpretation of mainstreaming is a violation of law, not the intent of the law.

We provide for the bilingual population which is a growing population in Massachusetts. In that case, we have special transitional bilingual education under State law.

Senator EAGLETON. What percentage of Boston schoolchildren are of Hispanic origin or primarily whose language is Spanish?

Dr. ANRIG. I don't know for Boston and Dr. Wood will be able to answer that correctly. But the figure is about 15,000 youngsters out of 1.1 million for the State.

Senator EAGLETON. That 15,000 is a rapidly escalating figure?

Dr. ANRIG. It is escalating in particularly our older cities, Worcester, New Bedford, Springfield. That is a growing concern.

One of the purposes of your hearing is to try to figure out what Federal action will be appropriate.

First, I want to commend the efforts of U.S. Commissioner of Education Ernest Boyer, who has consulted closely with the States with regard to title II; and he has decided to allow each State to

come up with its own individualized plan based on where it is and where it is heading with regard to basic skills improvement.

This individual approach to each State, I think, makes good, sound policy. Massachusetts has volunteered to be one of the three test States to develop an individualized State plan; and we are in the process of completing it and hope to have it completed by next month.

I think one needs from the Federal Government level support for inservice education. There is a need for noncategorical inservice money for training of teachers at the school level, and I want to stress at the school level. We don't need more money for large-scale kinds of programs. We do need it with the group of teachers who want to improve their ability in reading or math and can get a small amount of money with a minimum amount of bureaucracy.

I think what we have to look forward to in the future, because of declining enrollment, is a very stable teaching force. We can't count on new people coming into the system. We have to work with the people we have there now.

Senator EAGLETON. Does Boston have a teachers college affiliated with the Boston school system?

In St. Louis, my home city, it is called Harris Teachers College. Any public high school graduate in St. Louis is automatically admitted to Harris Teachers College.

After spending 4 years there, any graduate from Harris Teachers College is automatically placed on the hiring list for the St. Louis school system.

Does Boston have any kind of an analogous teachers college affiliated with the Boston school?

Dr. ANRIG. It had Boston State College, which was a city teachers college; and it had a long tradition. That monopoly has been broken.

I think you may want to take a look in your State. If one institution is the sole source or the major source and if that institution has weaknesses, that will be carried through the school system.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you think there ought to be from time to time periodic upgrade tests, or whatever label you want to apply, to test the modernity of the teacher's skills?

Dr. ANRIG. I think on that issue, Mr. Chairman, I would be more interested not in testing but measuring the teacher's competence rather than giving a teacher a test. I am sure you feel, as you recall your school days, you remember a particular teacher and you thought that teacher was great. This would not be something to show up on a test. It had to do with the kind of spark she or he had, the kind of inspiration, the kind of stimulation you received from the teacher.

What shows up on a test is that you have the basic knowledge of this subject area. That is not what makes a great teacher.

What makes a great teacher is a spark; and we haven't come to where we test sparks.

I think there is much more to do on the job of supervision evaluation and, if necessary, termination following due process and very good and respectful documentation.

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If someone is not competent, document that and get rid of them, but don't try to do it through a test.

The State board of education just this past month adopted new teacher certification regulations that are based on demonstrated competency where observed and evaluated through the classroom.

I have mentioned inservice education. I would say I feel the Education Professions Development Act is a good example of Federal assistance that is fine. I think it is important to promote, as you have already suggested, linkage between higher education, State departments of education, and school districts, particularly in technical areas such as testing and data analysis.

We are now submitting with the University of Massachusetts a proposal for a National Institute for Education, specifically for that kind of linkage; and it would be helpful if there were other kinds of funding.

We need somewhat greater flexibility with the existing categorical programs when they are applied to a target like basic skills. We are using title IV-C, title I, special education, vocational education money, all from different Federal laws, different deadlines, applications and regulations that get in the way of that kind of coordination.

I am not talking about doing away with it, but removing some of the paper barriers any way Congress wishes it to be done.

I do thank you very much for this opportunity to appear before you.

Senator EAGLETON. In your opinion, does the trend toward minimal competency testing inadvertently institutionalize mediocrity?

Take my home State of Missouri. The test in Missouri is given at the 12th grade but it tests 9th grade skill levels.

Dr. ANRIG. I think it is very important in clearing up the issue of minimum standards to do it with the public, so there is an agreement on what we mean by minimum. I don't know of any decent school person or any decent teacher or any parent who wants her child to meet a minimum, but it is important to know what the minimum is so we know how far we exceed the minimum.

You used the word "excellence." I think it is very important as we go through this period of time not to settle on the minimum as being excellence.

As long as we are clear, I think we can avoid that kind of a pitfall. I don't think we should have maximums. I do think there is a base line below which we will not tolerate any school or system allowing youngsters to perform, nor would I define it as excellence.

Senator EAGLETON. Most of our conversation this morning has been about testing scores and we are talking about reading and math.

I am just as alarmed about the writing skills of this country. Let me explain what I am concerned about.

I have had Ph. D.'s come in to me for employment; Ph. D.'s in political science, history. I have had young law graduates from very fine universities. The job market is tightening, especially if you are a Ph. D. in history. I did get one fellow an elevator job. He needed some money and he took an elevator job in the Capitol building.

I find some of these young people very articulate verbally. When I look at some of the things they have written, I am dismayed. There is a total absence of puncuation, paragraphs; there are split infinitives, ending sentences with prepositions; a whole range of debilitating writing skills.

Do you have any comment on the decline in the capacity of today's students to write the English language?

Dr. ANRIG. In Massachusetts, our youngsters do rather well in reading and math and one area we do not do well in is writing.

I am sure Dean Rosovsky will speak in terms of the national trend. It wasn't the issue of punctuation or spelling or capitalization; those so-called basic skills. It was taking that and applying it to a written paragraph, taking an idea and translating it into a paragraph and writing so there is an opening and development and closing. That is where youngsters have not done well in writing skills. We are working on that. That is clearly identifiable and, I suspect, it is not different from other States.

Senator EAGLETON. I think your problem is identical to the other 49 States.

Thank you, Dr. Anrig. We appreciate your testimony.

Our second witness this morning is Dr. Henry Rosovsky, dean of the faculty of arts and science at Harvard University.

Dr. Rosovsky is best known as a leader in drafting the blueprint for major overhaul of Harvard since 1945.

Dr. Rosovsky, we welcome you this morning.

STATEMENT OF DR. HENRY ROSOVSKY, DEAN, FACULTY OF ARTS AND SCIENCE, HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Dr. ROSOVSKY. Mr. Chairman, thank you for your invitation to appear here today. I do not come before you as an expert on the problems of elementary and secondary education. But I have spent the last 5 years thinking about the aims of education at the college level, and inevitably this has led to reflections on the system as a whole. I am grateful for the opportunity to share my views with you on this subject.

There is a deep-seated American belief that national salvation lies in education. We view our schools as a great equalizer, an agent of national progress, a vehicle for enhancing personal growth and social mobility, an instrument for transmitting democratic values. These are surely some of the uses of schools. But they do not convey an understanding of what education actually is. Its central task is mental training—the development of intellectual capacities such as independent reasoning, understanding, and judgment.

The social aims of our schools exist in tension with their academic functions. And as every generation has discovered, the school curriculum becomes a battleground for resolving conflicts between standards of intellectual achievement and pressing social interests.

Since the beginning of the free schooling movement in the early 19th century United States, a continually rising proportion of Americans have sought ever higher levels of educational training. By the midsixties, about 75 percent of the relevant age cohort completed secondary schooling.

At the present time, more than 60 percent of all high school graduates enter college—a stunningly high proportion in comparison with other countries.

What standards of intellectual training can reasonably apply to a student population inevitably diverse in background, preparation, talent, and interests?

The educational systems of other democratic nations offer us no model. In virtually all cases, access to the higher reaches of education is severely limited and guarded by a series of barriers.

In England "O" and "A" level examinations, taken at the ages of 14 and 16, determine who can prepare for and gain admission to universities.

Up until 1963, French schoolchildren were sorted out for different educational paths—and employment prospects—at the age of 11; now that decision is delayed to the age of 15.

In Japan, the right choice of kindergarten may control one's chances for a place in the university.

The basic recurring pattern elsewhere is one of rigid structure, standardized curricula, intensive academic focus, and the systematic weeding out of those who fail to measure up to exacting academic standards. Those fortunate few who successfully climb the educational pyramid are declared to be broadly educated and ready to determine and pursue their specialized career interests.

Our system is different in almost every respect. It is strikingly decentralized: At the primary and secondary levels, it is organized into more than 16,000 autonomous school districts—in 1945, that number was 101,000. There are no uniform curricula or national standards of achievement. While we generally proclaim the importance of knowledge, and the skills and habits of disciplined thought, these are often viewed as only one set of desirable outcomes.

We consider it equally important that the schools provide an environment congenial to physical health and psychological growth—the welfare of the whole child. The fact that we impose a distinctive—and different—mission on schools at each level of education means that the relationship between levels, for example, between high school and college is neither structured nor clear.

But this seeming disorder has the singular virtue of expressing fundamental American values: Localism, pluralism, educational opportunity—the chance to make a fresh beginning at every stage of schooling.

The educational hallmark of our society is that we do not cast the die for young people before they are 18 years old—either by foreclosing further opportunity or exacting early occupational commitments.

Our system—or lack of it—has important implications for the admissions policies and curricula of American colleges and universities. Even our most selective colleges—Harvard College, for example—exercise great tolerance at the point of entry. We want, and are able to attract, outstanding students. But we take them from a national pool of enormous size and diversity, in which the quality of secondary education varies considerably.

Variations in family income and family culture, race or geographical location, the wealth of a school system or the importance

that a locality places on education—all of these mean that students with equal ability may well leave their respective high schools with different levels of preparation and sophistication.

Beyond the very best secondary schools, one cannot count upon the full cultivation of ability or its translation into achievement. The point is simply that stiff college entry requirements tend to equate ability with achievement, and therefore run the risk of denying educational opportunity to those who are either late bloomers or who have not had the advantage of intensive academic training.

The admissions practices of American colleges differ from their foreign counterparts in other ways as well.

Many seek a student body that is diverse in background and talent, so that the undergraduates' collegiate experience will be broadening culturally as well as intellectually. But when we try to maximize the representativeness of our entering classes, we have to accept the responsibility for transforming a heterogeneous group of students into a company of education men and women.

This responsibility must be addressed in the college curriculum. In effect, the American school system delivers two tasks to the colleges. We have to improve the basic skills of those students with the weakest preparation. More importantly, we need to provide the broad and solid general education that cannot be guaranteed by our secondary school system.

The relatively unstructured universities of England and France are not concerned with a common core of intellectual experience. Their students share a common prior training. American liberal arts colleges have no European counterpart precisely because they were designed to meet a special need for general knowledge and the development of broad intellectual capacities.

It is in this context that, over the last 5 years, the faculty of Harvard College has been trying to clarify its goals in undergraduate education and to redesign the curriculum accordingly. We began with an effort to state what it means to be an educated person in the latter part of the 20th century. We concluded that:

One, an educated person must be able to think and write clearly and effectively.

Two, an educated person should have achieved depth in some field of knowledge. Cumulative learning is an effective way to develop a student's powers of reasoning and analysis, and for our undergraduates this is the principal role of concentrations.

Three, an educated person should have a critical appreciation of the ways in which we gain and apply knowledge and understanding of the universe, of society, and of ourselves. Specifically, he or she should have an informed acquaintance with the aesthetic and intellectual experience of literature and the arts; with history as a mode of understanding present problems and the processes of human affairs; with the concepts and analytic techniques of modern social science; and with the mathematical and experimental methods of the physical and biological sciences.

Four, an educated person is expected to have some understanding of, and experience in thinking about, moral and ethical problems. It may well be that the most significant quality in educated

persons is the informed judgment which enables them to make discriminating moral choices.

Five, finally, an educated American, in the last third of this century, cannot be provincial in the sense of being ignorant of other cultures and other times. It is no longer possible to conduct our lives without reference to the wider world within which we live. A crucial difference between the educated and the uneducated is the extent to which one's life experience is viewed in wider contexts.

Traditional college requirements—course work in expository writing and the selection of a major field of concentration—are designed to meet in part the first and second elements of this standard. The third, fourth and fifth elements led to the formulation of a so-called core curriculum required of all students.

Broadly stated, the goal of the core curriculum is to help students come to a critical appreciation of the major approaches to knowledge. We would like them to gain at least some understanding of what kinds of knowledge exist in certain important areas of inquiry, how such knowledge is acquired, how it is used, and what it might mean to them personally.

It seeks, in other words, to provide all students with basic literacy in major forms of intellectual discourse.

A simple theory lies behind this particular approach to general education.

We live in an era marked by the explosion of knowledge and expertise. There are too many facts, too many theories, to many subjects, too many specialties, to sustain the traditional notion that an educated person should know a little bit about everything. That kind of knowledge, by virtue of its quantity, diversity and difficulty, has become exceedingly difficult to acquire.

Still, some comprehension of the state of contemporary understanding of people, society, the economy, nature, thought, and the past, is essential. The new curriculum seeks to meet that need by showing what scientists, artists, writers, historians, social scientists, and philosophers do, and how they enlarge our understanding of the world we live in.

What are the implications for primary and secondary schools of this overview of college admission and curriculum policy?

A number of critics appear to think that our core curriculum implies that the colleges can and should go it alone, in the sense of taking onto themselves the task of remedying the deficiencies of precollege education.

Others have read our plan as a statement that primary and secondary schools should devote themselves to the teaching of basic skills, and leave the more interesting and challenging aspects of intellectual training to the colleges. Nothing could be further from the truth.

The fact is that there is a crisis in higher, no less than in primary and secondary, education. The same social forces and intellectual attitudes that have so weakened the elementary and high school curriculum have eroded college and university education as well. The task of rebuilding is one that all of us must share.

Our purposes as well as our predicament are similar. Neither broad understanding nor intellectual skills are learned at any

single stage of the educational process; nor are they ever learned once and for all.

Education is preparation for life, that is true; but it is also part of life, in the sense that life—most particularly life as lived in a free, open and democratic society such as ours—should be a constant, never-ending process of fulfillment and renewal.

Thank you very much, Mr. Chairman.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much.

May I direct your attention back to page 5 wherein you set forth precepts of what it means to be an educated person in the latter part of the 20th century.

Precept or point No. 1: "An educated person must be able to think and write clearly and effectively."

Realizing that Harvard College has thousands of extremely well-qualified applicants; in essence, picks the cream of the cream, how do you evaluate the writing skills of incoming freshmen as contrasted with the writing skills of incoming freshmen 20 years ago?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. Senator Eagleton, I haven't made a systematic study of that, but my offhand impression is that the writing skills of our students have declined in the last 10 or 15 years.

I have the feeling that there is less attention being paid now, as the Commissioner said, to the fundamentals of grammar.

I have my own children in the public schools of Newton, Mass., and from my point of view, not enough attention there is paid to teaching students how to write properly.

Senator EAGLETON. Your new core curriculum will become operative at the beginning of September of this year?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. It is starting this fall. It is being phased in.

Senator EAGLETON. Insofar as the English language is concerned, what will be mandated for incoming freshmen, if anything?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. We have always had and will continue to have a requirement in expository writing and the vast majority of our students will take a college course in expository writing.

In addition, our new curriculum mandates courses in literature, which is an other way of improving people's appreciation of language usage.

Senator EAGLETON. Maybe this is too broad a question.

Could you focus once again on core curriculum? Could you give me a summary of the freshman requirements under the core curriculum that will become operative in September?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. I certainly can do that.

Our curriculum is not limited to the freshman year. It is equivalent to one-fourth of the total curriculum. Some of it will be taken in the freshman year. Some of it might be taken in the senior year.

Generally, the students will have completed it by the time they get to be juniors.

Very briefly, the requirements are as follows:

First, there will be a new mathematics requirement, and that requirement will focus on three aspects of mathematics.

It is our feeling that every student today who considers himself or herself to be educated should be able to understand and write a simple computer program.

Second, there will be an emphasis on applications of the functional concept to real world situations and, lastly, on uncertainty and statistical reasoning.

Now, I think the vast majority of students who come to Harvard will be able to examine out of that particular mathematics requirement. They will have done to sufficient work in high school.

As I said earlier, students will also take a required course in expository writing.

We come now to the areas of study required in the core curriculum proper.

There will be courses in literature with the emphasis on major masterpieces, and a choice of some course work in either music or art.

The second main area is historical study; this area is also divided into two parts.

One part will consist a broad-ranging courses that explain historically the background and development of major aspects of the present world.

We will take a major issue today, let us say the present state of the international economy, and trace back for the student the roots of current problems.

The second part will consist of sharply focused courses that examine in detail the complexity of controversial and transforming events in the more distant past, and that involve analysis of circumstances, motives, and decisions. Examples might be courses dealing with the Reformation or the French Revolution.

The third area of study we refer to as social analysis and moral reasoning.

Under social analysis, we would like our students to understand how a social scientist approaches major problems. We don't care whether they prefer to study with an economist, a sociologist, a psychologist, or any other social scientist.

We want our student to understand how a social scientist thinks about human behavior in the context of contemporary society.

Under moral reasoning we will offer courses that introduce students to important traditions of thought, make them aware of the intricacies of ethical argument, and bring them to grips with particular questions of choice and value.

We want students to learn how to deal with such issues as justice, obligation, personal responsibility, citizenship, and friendship.

The fourth area of study is science, and here we would like our student to do a year of serious work partly in the physical sciences, and partly in the biological and behavioral sciences.

Finally, we will require that all students study a foreign culture and we hope that some of them will be able to do this through the use of a foreign language.

There is one thing I forgot to say, Senator, when I described our general requirements outside the core program proper.

We always have had a foreign language requirement at Harvard. We intend to stiffen it.

Senator EAGLETON. Very, very interesting.

Do you have a modest-sized version of the core curriculum plan?

You don't have to leave it with us, but we would like to make it part of the hearing record.

Dr. ROSOVSKY. I do.

Senator EAGLETON. I heard you mention the word "economics" one, but you mentioned it in terms of illustrative purposes, under the historical orientation.

Was any thought given in designing the core curriculum to having a basic requirement in general economic understanding, both domestic and international, as being an ingredient of an educated man or woman?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. Mr. Chairman, we did talk about that.

However, it was our feeling that the important thing for our students was not particular facts or techniques, but rather that we give an understanding of the major forms of knowledge.

Economics—I might say I am an economist myself—is only one division of the social sciences, and I think if you study how a particular social science works, it doesn't really make too much difference whether you study economics or sociology or political science; because any one of these will demonstrate the way in which formal theory and empirical data can be applied to enlarge understanding of individual and social experience.

So we did not require economics as opposed to any other social science, but we are making certain that our students, all of them, have a serious encounter with one of the social sciences.

Senator EAGLETON. As spokesman for the Standing Committee on Core Curriculum, there was a quotation as follows: "About two-thirds of the courses are absolutely new or dramatic revisions of existing courses."

Could you expand on that a bit, since that appears to be more than just requiring certain basic courses?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. I think that one of the most important aspects of this exercise, from our point of view, was to engage our faculty in thinking about the goals and purposes of undergraduate education.

I think that has been a problem in many American universities. We are all heirs of the very prosperous 1960's when graduate work assumed a place of central importance. It was a glamourous and growing sector.

I think we may have neglected our duties in our undergraduate education. I doubt that anyone in higher education will contradict that.

Now, one of the main purposes was to establish specific educational goals and produce courses that met them.

This is not an old fashioned distribution requirement where students are given a college catalog and told to take three courses of this or two courses of that.

Each one of the courses in this curriculum is designed to fit quite well-spelled-out educational purposes and, therefore, we do need a great many courses. But we did need new courses because our approach to the issue of what constitutes general education at the college level is a new one.

Senator EAGLETON. In earlier hearings of this committee, we had Dr. Giamatti, the new President of Yale University, as a witness, and he talked of eagerness—and his field is literature and Eng-

lish—he talked of the eagerness of Yale students to sign up for extra help in writing.

He pointed out that some 80 students at Yale applied for 12 slots in a writing lab.

Do you have any analogous experience at Harvard?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. Yes, we do.

We have a very extensive writing program for our students and also, for example, we have run writing workshops that are non-credit, and these have always been very well attended.

I think students, especially once they get to college and particularly if they go to a competitive college, realize where their skills are weak and they are quite willing to work hard to improve them.

I do think that every high school graduate should be able to write well. There is really no reason why this skill has to be developed at the college level but I think it is unlikely that we will be able to abandon the teaching of writing in the forseeable future.

Senator EAGLETON. It is my understanding, and you can correct my understanding if it be erroneous, that for the past 3 years or so, Harvard College has had some affiliation or working relationship with Roxbury High School.

Dr. ROSOVSKY. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Can you describe what that relationship has been, and can you say whether Harvard has had any beneficial enhancement of the basic skills of the students at Roxbury?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. I can't. I believe this has been run primarily out of the school of education. I don't know whether Jean Chall can talk about this.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Chall nods she can address herself to that.

Dr. ROSOVSKY. There is one point I would like to make that isn't covered in my statement. The matter is one I wonder if you have covered, and I would like, with all due respect, to raise it to your consideration.

I have not taught in secondary or primary education. My experience is limited to higher education. But I have in recent months become particularly interested in the problems of secondary education. I have recently talked to many teachers and I get the sense that one of the problems in secondary and elementary education, as contrasted to university education, is in the area of recognition incentives. That is my strong impression.

I would like to see it brought out during the hearings that in the university, in higher education, most people are very highly motivated because there is a fairly clear system of recognition incentives and rewards.

A university professor may have a reputation that is national. The university may translate his reputation perhaps into some exemplary status or into time for travel, that is, into good things from the point of view of the professor and also from the point of view of the institution.

I get the feeling from talking to many teachers in secondary and primary education that such a system of recognition incentives is absent. There is a feeling it doesn't make much difference whether they do very well or less well.

If that is the truth—and I would certainly like to hear whether you can find out something about this or whether you have encountered other people who have said this—then we do have a very major flaw in the system. One of the things that I would give a lot of thought to is whether a system of recognition incentives and rewards cannot be worked out for schoolteachers because I think the payoff for us, for the national system of education, might be very large.

Senator EAGLETON. Might I rebut that a bit—not outright disagreement—but are you perhaps suggesting this from an unusual vantage point? You are a dean of Harvard College and you talk about rewards and incentives and university professors.

Do you think that at St. Louis City Junior College—this is a teacher's college, where we have a 2-year junior college—do you think there is the same recognition incentives and rewards, shall I say, at a somewhat less prestigous college than Harvard?

Dr. ROSOVSKY. Probably not. One of the difficulties is that higher education in the United States is vast and it goes all the way from junior college to a research university and perhaps one should, in talking about this problem, include St. Louis Junior College with the high schools rather than think of it in the category of colleges and universities. But the problem might still be there.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Dean Rosovsky, very much.

Dr. ROSOVSKY. Thank you very much.

[Report on the core curriculum follows:]

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

REPORT ON THE CORE CURRICULUM

Revised, May 1979

This is a revision of the Report on the Core Curriculum circulated to the Faculty in April, 1978

BACKGROUND

Shortly after assuming the presidency of Harvard University, Derek Bok turned his attention to undergraduate education. His Annual Report for 1971-1972 noted much vitality, diversity, and strength in the students and faculty of the College. But he also observed that there was no general understanding at Harvard--or indeed at other American colleges--of what young men and women could expect to gain from a liberal arts education.

Almost all liberal arts curricula since the early years of this century have been organized according to principles of depth and breadth which encourage students to acquire a solid grasp of one subject and broad exposure to a variety of other fields. At mid-century, breadth was provided by requiring courses that surveyed the three main divisions of knowledge (humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences), and offered a grounding in the traditions and culture of Western civilization. But in the last decade or more, this curricular pattern has seemed inadequate or inappropriate. Colleges now serve an extraordinarily diverse body of students; knowledge has proliferated immensely and familiar lines of demarcation have broken down; there is a growing interest in the history and problems of non-Western countries and peoples. These currents have made it increasingly difficult to agree upon a body of knowledge that could be considered essential to the education of undergraduates, and they have called into question the structure of the traditional liberal arts curriculum.

In the summer of 1973, President Bok appointed a new Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences who immediately set out to clarify the educational goals

of Harvard College. As the first step in initiating a broad review of the College, Dean Henry Rosovsky published a "Letter to the Faculty on Undergraduate Education" in October, 1974. This letter outlined the problems of undergraduate education at Harvard, many of them the result of more than twenty-five years of unsystematic, piecemeal change in requirements and the curriculum. It called upon the Faculty to join in the effort to redefine the aims and methods of liberal education.

In the following months well over one hundred faculty members, and scores of students, responded to the Dean's statement; almost all agreed with Rosovsky's critique of the status quo. The following spring, Dean Rosovsky appointed seven Task Forces to study different aspects of the College.[1] The Task Force on the Core Curriculum, chaired by Professor James Q. Wilson, was charged with determining what, if any, intellectual experiences and skills should be required of all students, regardless of their field of concentration, and how the College might best fulfill its obligation to provide a liberal education. This Task Force issued a preliminary report in the fall of 1976. Recommending a set of nonconcentration requirements keyed to specific educational goals, it examined and rejected arguments for the principal curricular alternatives: an expansion of electives; greater emphasis on preprofessional or vocational training; or continuation of vaguely defined distribution requirements. The so-called Wilson Report made the case for a mandatory core curriculum based not on some theoretical division or hierarchical ordering of knowledge, but rather on "distinctive ways of thinking that are identifiable and important." It offered a provisional statement of requirements in eight areas.

1. Separate task forces were appointed to study the composition of the student body, college life, advising and counselling, pedagogical improvement, educational resources, concentrations, and the core curriculum.

The Wilson Report was widely discussed in the spring of 1977. The Faculty Council (steering committee of the Faculty) prepared legislation incorporating the basic recommendation while altering and consolidating the provisional statement of requirements. In May, 1977, the Faculty voted by a considerable majority to reaffirm its commitment to nonconcentration requirements and to proceed, through five faculty committees, to a more detailed and specific set of recommendations.

These committees met during 1977-1978, first separately, then as a committee of the whole under the chairmanship of Dean Rosovsky. The Report on the Core Curriculum, finally submitted to the Faculty in April, 1978, contained sections on the rationale of the Core and its relation to the remainder of the undergraduate curriculum. Defining a standard of intellectual breadth, it emphasized basic modes of understanding that are important in the contemporary world. In accordance with the principles and guidelines outlined below, the Faculty voted [redacted] to establish a Core Curriculum requirement and a Standing Committee to implement it over a four-year period, beginning in the fall of 1979. This document is an edited version of the Report on the Core Curriculum; it incorporates modifications called for in the faculty legislation.

I. Purpose of the Core Curriculum

In his Annual Report for 1975-76, Dean Rosovsky attempted to state what it means to be an educated person in the latter part of the twentieth century. The standard that he outlined provided the context for the review of undergraduate education at Harvard, including the development of the Core Curriculum. The elements of this standard, which broadly outline the educational goals of the College, were as follows.

1. An educated person must be able to think and write clearly and effectively.

2. An educated person should have achieved depth in some field of knowledge. Cumulative learning is an effective way to develop a student's powers of reasoning and analysis, and for our undergraduates this is the principal role of concentrations.

3. An educated person should have a critical appreciation of the ways in which we gain and apply knowledge and understanding of the universe, of society and of ourselves. Specifically, he or she should have an informed acquaintance with the aesthetic and intellectual experience of literature and the arts; with history as a mode of understanding present problems and the processes of human affairs; with the concepts and analytic techniques of modern social science; and with the mathematical and experimental methods of the physical and biological sciences.

4. An educated person is expected to have some understanding of, and experience in thinking about, moral and ethical problems. It may well be that the most significant quality in educated persons is the informed judgment which enables them to make discriminating moral choices.

5. Finally, an educated American, in the last third of this century, cannot be provincial in the sense of being ignorant of other cultures and other times. It is no longer possible to conduct our lives without reference to the wider world within which we live. A crucial difference between the educated and the uneducated is the extent to which one's life experience is viewed in wider contexts.

The first goal, that our students learn to communicate with precision, cogency, and force, is addressed by the requirement in Expository Writing, and reinforced throughout the curriculum. The second goal, depth of knowledge in a particular field, is accomplished through the requirement that students concentrate a substantial portion of their work in a single subject. The importance and value of concentration was reaffirmed by both the Task Force on the Core Curriculum and the Task Force on Concentrations.

The third, fourth, and fifth goals are met specifically through the Core Curriculum. Its purpose is to assure that all students, regardless of their special field of concentration, acquire the knowledge, skills, and habits of thought that the Faculty believes to be of general and lasting intellectual significance. Broadly stated, the goal of the Core is to encourage a critical appreciation of the major approaches to knowledge, so that students may acquire an understanding of what kinds of knowledge exist in certain important areas, how such knowledge is created, how it is used, and what it might mean to them personally. We seek, in other words, to have students acquire basic literacy in major forms of intellectual discourse.

To this end we have established requirements in five areas. Requirements in Literature and the Arts will acquaint students with important literary and artistic achievements and will aim to develop a critical understanding of how man gives artistic expression to his experience of the world. History requirements

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will focus on major aspects of the present world viewed in historical perspective and will attempt to lead students to an understanding of the complexity of human affairs in specific situations in the past. Requirements in Social Analysis and Moral Reasoning. introduce central concepts and ideas in these intellectual realms and will develop students' abilities to think systematically about fundamental aspects of individual and social life in contemporary society. Science requirements will acquaint students with basic principles of the physical, biological, and behavioral sciences and with science as a way of looking at man and the world. Finally, a Foreign Cultures requirement is designed to expand the student's range of cultural experience and to provide fresh perspectives of his or her own cultural assumptions and traditions. This aim may be achieved through appropriate Core courses in Literature and the Arts, History, or Social Analysis, or in special courses in Foreign Cultures. The intention here is not only to avoid an exclusive focus on Western traditions, but to expose students to the essential and distinctive features of foreign cultures, whether Western or non-Western.

These different areas of the Core Curriculum are linked by a common question: how do we gain and apply knowledge and understanding of the universe, of society, and of ourselves? The underlying purpose of the Core is to set a minimum standard of intellectual breadth for our students. Yet the Core is not meant to stand alone. Fulfilling Core requirements will consume the equivalent of about one academic year, as did the previous General

Education requirement. Concentration requirements will continue to involve the equivalent of about two years of academic work. Students will retain the equivalent of one academic year for electives, within which they can express their own priorities by initiating or advancing selected aspects of their intellectual development. Conjoined with these electives and work in the field of concentration, the Core will provide a solid and shared base of general and liberal education for all of our students.

It is also important to note what is not intended in the Core Curriculum. We have not established an identical set of courses for all students, or an even-handed introduction to all fields of knowledge. The proliferation of knowledge and the diversity of our students make both of these goals impractical. We do not think there is a single set of Great Books that every educated person must master, and we do not think an inevitably thin survey of the traditional subject areas - humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences - is any longer useful. Nor do we think a loose distribution requirement among departmental courses can accomplish the educational priorities that we have identified. Finally, the Core Curriculum is not intended as a model for higher education in general. We do not believe all colleges should perform the same function or offer the same curriculum; indeed, we are dismayed by the uniformity that has come to characterize much of higher education. Our purpose is to provide the best possible education for our own students. If we are successful, others may benefit as well, but this is a secondary consideration.

II. The Core Requirement

The Core Program establishes requirements in five areas. Detailed guidelines for the courses in each area are as follows:

Area 1: Literature and the Arts

Characteristics of the Courses: The common aim of these courses is to foster a critical understanding of how man gives artistic expression to his experience of the world. Through the examination of selected major works, students will be expected to develop and refine skills of reading, seeing, and hearing; to apprehend the possibilities and limitations of the artist's chosen medium and the means available for expression; to understand the complex interplay between individual talent, artistic tradition, and historical context. In the requirement for this area the written word takes precedence over other forms of artistic expression to the extent that the study of literature is required of all students, while a choice is offered between music and fine arts.

The Requirement: One half-course in literature (A), one half-course in fine arts or music (B), and one half-course dealing with humanistic culture in its broader context (C). Certain courses in Area 1 will also be designated as meeting the requirement in Area 5 (Foreign Cultures).

A - Literature: Students will choose one half-course from a specified group of courses created or adapted for the Core Curriculum. Each course will examine major texts in a specific genre. This organizing principle has been chosen in the belief that formal coherance will provide added depth and dimension. The courses will aim to convey an understanding of particular modes of apprehending and articulating experience; they are not intended to be solely studies in the history of a genre. What lies behind the vision of comedy or the vision of tragedy? What are the aspirations that inform the world of epic or the world of

romance? What are the inherent attitudes in the pastoral that have attracted authors to it at certain moments in history? How is poetry capable of conveying aspects of experience which prose is not? These are the kinds of questions to be addressed. We assume that in dealing with such questions students will be exposed to a variety of critical approaches, but the primary purpose of Core literature courses is to show how great authors have contrived distinctive statements about timeless and universal aspects of human experience.

B - Fine Arts or Music: Students will choose one half-course, either in fine arts or in music, from a specified group of courses. All courses will incorporate instruction in the elements of visual or aural "literacy"; it is expected that this can be done through direct exposure to the works of major artists.

i) Fine Arts: [redacted] Courses will focus on major works of art, artists, and sites, and emphasize questions of visual form and expression. Such courses will seek to develop the capacity to make discriminating judgments and to promote understanding of the relationship between art and the culture in which it is produced. Courses may explore one or more of the media of art and ordinarily will involve a comparison of the differing approaches and products of artists in different times and places.

ii) Music: Each course will attempt to convey a critical understanding of musical works of art by exploring a topically defined range of music. Courses will seek to develop in students a sensitivity to the elements of musical sound and their formal integration. In order to discern the means by which major composers achieved their masterpieces, students should

acquire some familiarity with the rudiments of musical language such as rhythm, melody, and harmony; with basic principles of compositional technique and fundamental concepts of musical form; with the properties of various vocal and instrumental performance media; with the development of musical styles; and with the relevance of social and historical contexts. Courses will emphasize some aspects of analysis more than others, but above all else, students are to acquire an informed awareness of musical styles, structure and ideas.

C - Contexts of Culture: In addition to half-courses in fields A and B, students will choose one half-course from a specified group of "Contexts" courses. The aim of these courses is to illustrate, where appropriate, the connection among the arts, and to place artistic achievements in their social contexts.

These courses may be organized in many ways, though they will not be traditional surveys. The following examples of subjects and approaches are intended to be suggestive, not prescriptive: a) Some courses may wish to focus on a specific time and place (such as Periclean Athens or Medicean Florence) and examine significant literary, artistic, and philosophical works with reference to their social and economic contexts. b) Some courses may wish to study aspects of a specific stylistic movement (such as Neoclassicism, Romanticism, or Impressionism) by examining in detail selected works of art and literature viewed in their social contexts. c) Other courses may wish to focus on a specific theme in intellectual history as it touches

several cultures or nations (for example, country versus city, ideals of education, concepts of the happy man, or utopias). d) Still other courses might look at various movements, such as renaissances or revivals, in different countries and times, considering their causes, their shared characteristics, and their effects, while linking them with social and political needs. e) Another type of course might be concerned with certain fundamental aspects of the creative process. For example, a course might consider how certain great artists, such as Euripedes, Shakespeare, Goethe, Titian, and Beethoven, achieved in their final visions a resolution of those artistic and philosophical problems with which they had wrestled through a lifetime of creativity.

All such courses will necessarily be selective in their use of artistic and literary materials, and they need not be confined to the Western tradition, though this tradition should predominate in the listings of any given year.

Area 2: Historical Study

Characteristics of the Courses: These courses seek to accomplish two aims: A) to orient students historically to some of the major concerns of the contemporary world; and B) to help them acquire a measure of understanding of the complexity of human affairs in specific situations in the past and the process by which important changes have taken place.

The Requirement: One half-course in A and one half-course in B. The requirements may be fulfilled by students at any point in their four years; indeed, freshman year may not be the best time to take a course in either field. Certain courses in both A and B will be designated as also meeting the requirement in Area 5 (Foreign Cultures).

A - Historical Orientation to the Present: The purpose of these courses is to explain historically some major aspect of the present world. Courses will be broad in scope, addressing the modern world in a global or near-global subject area. For this purpose, the "modern" world is defined as the late 19th and 20th centuries; but courses that deal with extended periods of history will be included in this category if they also meet the purpose of accounting historically for important issues in the present world. Examples of areas particularly appropriate to this category are: the development of modern political ideologies; the history of international conflicts in the modern world; and main trends in politics and social organization, in modern economic history, and in modern intellectual history.

B - The Process of History: The purpose of these courses is to examine in detail the complexity of transforming events, the interactions of social and economic circumstance, belief, purpose, effort, and accident that shape people's lives. These courses will involve students in affairs that once divided people sharply but no longer do and that now may be approached impartially. Courses will deal with (a) developments that shaped some significant portion of history irreversibly; (b) issues that

were controversial in their own time and that people struggled over, hence manifest rather than latent issues; (c) issues that are not directly related to modern policy questions. These courses will include a broad view of some major transition in human affairs--origins, consolidation, and consequences--and provide sufficient detail to allow realistic judgments on particular participants, motives, perceptions, and decisions. Thus a course on the triumph of the Christian church in late classical antiquity, perhaps centering on the reign of Constantine of Julian, would be appropriate here; so too would courses on the challenge of the Protestant Reformation, the struggles that ensued, and the process by which accomodations were reached; on the origins and consequences of the Thirty Years War; on the French, American, or Russian Revolution; on the English Civil War; and on the challenge of and struggles over Darwinism.

Area 3: Social Analysis and Moral Reasoning

Characteristics of the Courses: The common aim of these courses is to introduce students to the central concepts and ideas of social science and moral and political philosophy, and to develop their analytic skills in understanding the fundamental social institutions and concerns of contemporary society. Courses will be organized around selected topics or themes chosen for their effectiveness in demonstrating how social scientists and philosophers think about social and moral issues. Courses will focus primarily, but not exclusively, on one of the following: A) the application of a formal body of theory and of empirical data to an understanding of some fundamental aspect of individual or social life in contemporary society; or B) the investigation of significant and recurrent questions of choice and value which arise in ordinary

political and moral experience, drawing on writings of political and social theorists. Courses may include an historical or comparative dimension. They need not attempt comprehensive coverage of the work currently going on in any single discipline.

The Requirement: Two half-courses, one in Social Analysis (A) and one in Moral Reasoning (B). [redacted] Certain courses in Social Analysis may also be designated as meeting the requirement in Area 5 (Foreign Cultures).

A - Social Analysis: The object of these courses is to familiarize students with some of the central approaches of the social sciences and to do so in a way that gives students a sense of how those approaches can enhance their understanding of human behavior in the context of contemporary society. The courses offered to meet this part of the Core requirement will provide coherent formal theories or analytical approaches that are tested or illuminated by empirical data. A Core course in economics, for example, would explain the nature, assumptions, and consequences of rational choice in the context of scarce resources. A Core course in anthropology might explain the meaning of culture and how it affects ways of perceiving, valuing and acting in a social context. A Core course in psychology might take as its central concept personality, motivation or intelligence, whereas one in sociology might focus on the nature, causes and implications of social stratification. A Core course in government might explore the nature of power in governmental decision-making.

In addition to exposing students to the Core approaches or theories

of various disciplines, courses will also expose students to the empirical data (statistical or other) used by disciplines in testing or elucidating key theories or propositions. Consideration will be given to the limitations as well as to the uses of social science data. Wherever possible, courses will explore the implicit values and assumptions underlying the analysis.

The key criteria for acceptance into the Core for all courses will be whether such courses give students a systematic introduction to some major social science field and to its theoretical and empirical foundations. Introductory courses that place primary emphasis on current policy issues without explicit and substantial use of formal theories or approaches will not be eligible for inclusion.

B - Moral Reasoning: These courses will serve a multiple purpose: to introduce students to important traditions of thought, to make them aware of the intricacies of ethical argument, and to bring them to grips with particular questions of choice and value. They are to learn that it is possible to think systematically about such issues as justice, obligation, personal responsibility, citizenship, and friendship. The emphasis in this part of the Core will be on Western traditions of thought and their relationship to political institutions and moral practice.

Courses will focus on ethics, law, and politics. Three different approaches to these subjects ought to be reflected in each year's Core listings. First, the historical approach, involving the study of major texts organized around one, or a very few, central themes, or examining in detail moral values and beliefs at some critical period of Western

history; examples might be Greek Ethics, or Citizenship in Historical Perspective. Second, a disciplinary approach stressing those concepts and issues that underlie the study of moral, political, and legal choice: determinism and responsibility, utilitarianism, the theory of rights, law and morals, legitimacy, and so on. Third, an approach in terms of concrete problems such as distributive justice, obligation, civil rights, or medical ethics, emphasizing particular moral and political controversies, legal cases, and historical examples.

Area 4: Science

Characteristics of the Courses: The common aim of these courses is to help students increase their scientific literacy and their capacity to approach scientific material intelligently. A further purpose is to convey a general understanding of science as a way of looking at man and the world.

The wealth of important and fundamental scientific knowledge is immense and rapidly growing. So is the need to understand increasingly complex interrelations between science and human affairs. The Core science requirement is intended to ensure that every student acquires some appreciation of this vast and fundamental intellectual activity. In addition to the two half-courses required, there is a mathematics prerequisite (discussed in section IV) which will permit the Core courses to assume some mathematical preparation on the part of all students.

Observations of the physical and biological world have led scientists to formulate principles that provide universal explanations of diverse phenomena. These include the laws that govern classical dynamics,

thermodynamics, radiation and the microscopic structure of matter, and the basic principles that underlie chemistry, molecular and cellular biology, biological evolution and behavior. The Core will contain courses that treat such basic scientific concepts and findings in some depth.

Every undergraduate should learn how scientists go about understanding the world through examples that illustrate these fundamental concepts and principles. The courses should consider not only what scientists believe is true in some domain, but how they have developed and validated their laws and principles. The critical role of observation and experiment in this process should be exhibited.

Core courses need not be limited to, nor provide broad and full coverage of, a single discipline. It is hoped that a number of the courses created or adapted for the Core will be interdisciplinary in nature. Some may bring historical or social perspectives to bear, describing, for example, how commonly held views have been overturned by certain major scientific discoveries, and some of the methods and motivations of the discoverers. Several Core courses should have no prerequisite other than some knowledge of mathematics (see section IV). The skills necessary to attack selected problems should be developed along the way. A number of courses, particularly in the physical sciences, may have a considerable mathematical component.

Many entering students already have a good background in the sciences. To serve these students, as well as those who wish to pursue their scientific education beyond the minimum requirement, some courses that presuppose an understanding of certain basic concepts and theories should also be offered. These courses might focus on the major principles and findings in areas of contemporary scientific research.

The Requirement: Core Science courses are divided into two groups. Courses in group A will deal primarily with the predictive and deductive analysis of natural phenomena through quantitative treatment of their simple elements. Group B will contain courses that analyze more complex systems that cannot be fully reduced to the behavior of their simple elements, and courses that provide a more descriptive, historical, or evolutionary treatment of aspects of the natural world. Students must take one half-course from each group. Approved departmental science courses at a more advanced level may also satisfy the Core science requirement. Because the science requirement is intended to serve as an irreducible minimum, students are encouraged to explore this area more deeply and extensively through electives.

Area 5: Foreign Cultures

Characteristics of the Courses: The common aim of all the courses is to expand the student's range of cultural experience and to provide fresh perspectives on the student's own cultural assumptions and traditions. Courses may well emphasize language as a means of entry into another culture; but proficiency should not be considered enough in itself for this purpose.

Courses need not attempt comprehensive coverage, but rather will penetrate deeply into selected aspects of the culture being studied. They may be problem-oriented, and should include consideration of the historical background and contemporary aspects of the culture under study. As much as possible, they will devote attention to religious and ethical values, social systems, intellectual trends, and literary and artistic achievements. Whether the primary emphasis is on the analysis of key texts and works of art, on historical orientation and perspective, or on fundamental aspects of individual or social life, these courses will seek to identify the distinctive patterns of thought, belief, and action that account for the particular configuration or ethos of another culture.

The foreign cultures studied in Core courses will, primarily but not exclusively, be living cultures and represent major cultural traditions. For these purposes, foreign cultures may be divided into two groups, with the principle that the less "foreign" a culture, the more advanced should be its study. The area subcommittee will deterine the boundaries between the two groups on a case by case basis.

The Requirement: For Area 5, the Core requirement in Foreign Cultures may be met in any one of four ways:

(a) One half-course devoted to the study of an important aspect of a major culture of the West and using the language of that culture. Courses available through this option will be listed under Core Areas 1, 2, or 3 and designated as also meeting the requirement in Area 5. The Core subcommittee in Foreign Cultures will develop guidelines for establishing the level of expected language proficiency. Students choosing courses through this option will be expected to deal with texts or lectures in a foreign language, but we are not disposed to tie the necessary level of proficiency to a numerical score on an existing test.

(b) One half-course devoted to the study of other major cultures where, in view of the difficulty of the languages, texts would be read in translation. Courses under this option will be listed under Core Areas 1, 2, or 3 and designated as also meeting the requirement in Area 5.

(c) One half-course which meets the objectives of Area 5 without meeting the criteria of Areas 1, 2, or 3 (such courses might treat two or more cultures or combine a number of disciplinary approaches). If Western European cultures provide the focus of study, courses will incorporate work in the appropriate foreign languages. Students who prefer this option will, in effect, be choosing to take one half-course more than the

7 or 8 half-course minimum needed to meet the Core requirements in all areas.

It is our intention that most of the courses available through the preceding options will meet the conditions of (a) and (b). These will be proposed, developed, and reviewed by the Foreign Cultures subcommittee, but they will be assigned to Literature and the Arts, Historical Studies, or Social Analysis by the Standing Committee on the Core Program in consultation with the subcommittees governing those Areas.

(d) Selected full second-year language courses which are qualified by virtue of the subject matter treated or the cultural access provided through purely linguistic study may also meet the Core requirement in Foreign Cultures. Students who prefer this option will, in effect, be choosing two half-courses in addition to the 7 or 8 half-course minimum needed to meet Core requirements in all areas.

III. Exemptions and Modifications

The Core Program establishes ten course requirements. However, the Faculty intended that the Core requirement should normally require no more than the equivalent of one year of work, or eight half-courses. This temporal constraint is satisfied without jeopardizing the goals of the Core as follows.

First, students will receive exemptions from one or two Core fields that overlap their concentration (as determined by the Standing Committee), where the total concentration program satisfies the objectives of the Core. Thus History concentrators would be exempted from the Core requirements in Area 2, Historical Study. This will reduce Core course requirements by one or two half-courses. Second, most of the courses meeting the Foreign Cultures requirement (Area 5) will also satisfy requirements in Areas 1, Literature and the Arts; 2, Historical Study; or 3, Social Analysis. This will reduce the Core requirement by one half-course. Together, these two modifications diminish the requirements of the Core Program to seven or eight half-courses. Some Core courses will count only toward the Foreign Cultures requirement; when students elect these courses, they will have to be taken in addition to the seven or eight half-courses otherwise required. Further adjustments will accommodate the special needs of transfer and advanced standing students.

Modifications which allow alternative methods of satisfying Core objectives, but do not reduce the quantity of course work required for the Core, were authorized in the enabling legislation. First, the Standing Committee and its subcommittees were encouraged to permit a specified advanced half-course in a department to count for a Core requirement whose

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objectives it fulfills. Second, the Committee was authorized and urged to designate particular "Core-related Sequences" containing two or more related or complementary half-courses, and allow such sequences to count for the Core requirement in the field whose objectives it fulfills. Third, the Committee was asked to examine alternatives which permit students to shift no more than one half-course between areas of the Core. Fourth, the Committee was authorized to adjust the requirements, as they relate to field specifications, on the basis of experience. All modifications made by the Standing Committee are to be reviewed by the full Faculty in 1982-83.

IV. Other Nonconcentration Requirements

In formulating the Core Curriculum, the Faculty also addressed certain other nonconcentration requirements in the College. Questions regarding the character of the concentration programs themselves were considered by a separate Task Force.

Writing

The Faculty reaffirmed the importance of a requirement in Expository Writing, and placed responsibility for that requirement in the hands of a special Subcommittee within the Core Program. It also made two recommendations for improving instruction in writing at Harvard. First, Expository Writing instruction should be linked with courses in the Core Curriculum, as a means of strengthening both. Second, evaluation of writing skills should be provided during the freshman orientation period; the small fraction of the class with substantial writing deficiencies will then be required to attend a noncredit remedial course during the fall term, before enrolling in a regular Expository Writing section in the spring term. The Subcommittee is currently studying the implementation of these and other improvements in Expository Writing.

Foreign Language

In adopting the Core Curriculum, the Faculty affirmed the value of knowledge of a foreign language, but referred detailed study of the foreign language requirement to a special committee. Pending the outcome of this consideration, the present foreign language requirement (one year of study in College, or a score of 560 or better on a foreign language examination) remains in force.

Mathematics

Finally, the Faculty voted to institute a new degree requirement asking for demonstrated competence in the application of mathematics and quantitative reasoning. Details of this requirement are currently being developed by the Core Subcommittee on Mathematics. The emphasis will be on applications, for, by and large, this is the weakest aspect of prior training in mathematics and the one more widely called upon in college studies. The vast majority of Harvard students have taken at least eleven years of earlier math courses. In recent years the mean score of our freshmen on the S.A.T. Math test has been over 700, and almost all of our students have scores above the national average for high school seniors. But too many students are unable to use what they know in new contexts: for example, many students with a full year of college calculus had difficulty performing a simple linear extrapolation of data points in a second-year biology course.

Thus the main thrust of the mathematics requirement will be to bridge the gap between student's theoretical knowledge and its application. One component will be the concept of function, and its role in understanding reality. A second component will be dealing with uncertainty through the techniques of probability and statistics. In addition, students will acquire an elementary knowledge of computer programming and familiarity with the Harvard time-sharing system, providing a base for the development and application of computer skills throughout the curriculum. A large majority of students will be able to satisfy the mathematics requirement by test, without having to enroll in a formally organized course. Self-study guides will be available, along with informal lectures and individual help provided at a Question Center; tests will be offered at frequent intervals. But for students who choose or need a more extensive and structured treatment, we will also offer a regular course covering the material of the mathematics requirement.

V. Implementation

Since the careful development or adaptation of courses suited to the purposes of the Core Program will take considerable time, the Core requirements will be gradually implemented over a four-year period. The freshmen who enter in the fall of 1979, the class of '83, will be subject to the earlier General Education requirement, but their General Education program must include Core courses from at least two fields. The class of '84 must take Core courses in at least four fields. The class of '85 must take Core courses in at least six fields. The full Core requirements will apply to students in the class of '86 and beyond. The mathematics requirement will first apply to the class of '84, entering in the fall of 1980. During the transition, the General Education portion of the requirement may be satisfied by current General Education courses, by Core courses, or by the existing departmental bypass (two departmental courses equals one General Education course).

Core courses will first be offered in 1979-80, and will increase in number in following years. Once implementation is complete, the overall Core Curriculum should offer between eighty and one hundred courses each year. Thus, on average, eight to ten courses will be available in each field in any given year.

The Standing Committee will report to the Faculty annually on the status of the Core Program. The full Core Program and its requirements will be subject to review and approval by the full Faculty in the academic year 1982-83.

Senator EAGLETON. Our next witness is Dr. Jeanne Chall, professor of education and director of the Reading Laboratory at Harvard Graduate School of Education.

I would like to point out Dr. Chall has been quoted in three of the four hearings held on this subject to date. So she is a witness that we are very anxious to have with us.

Dr. Chall, we welcome you.

That is not an exaggeration. Your name has been dropped from time to time throughout these hearings.

STATEMENT OF DR. JEANNE S. CHALL, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION AND DIRECTOR, READING LABORATORY, HARVARD UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Dr. CHALL. Thank you very much, Senator Eagleton.

I am delighted to be here and I have prepared my testimony to talk mainly about reading, because that is the area of basic skills to which I have devoted most of my life.

May I say before I go on with my prepared testimony about your point, your concern with writing.

I can say, from my viewpoint and knowledge of reading, that it is the most difficult and it is almost the last for the children and for the students to acquire. Therefore, it takes the most care and the most practice; and for children with severe dyslexia and severe difficulty in learning to read, writing comes the latest.

I think your concern is a genuine one. We did a small study—I will refer to it later—of the scholastic aptitude test, and the relation to textbooks.

One of the strange things we found—it is not strange; it is real—was that in analyzing books over a 30-year period and looking, in addition to various other things that were of interest to us, was how much writing the students were asked to do in workbooks and teachers' manuals, and so on; and we found it was hardly any at all, even in the textbooks in composition and grammar. We would think they were encouraged to do this.

Where they did give writing, it was mainly writing a single word or a single answer or doing things of that kind. So in the whole situation, I think, with writing, there has been great change, and it has changed the educational system whereby tests have been multiple choice and fill-in, and we have come to the point, perhaps, where we have lost a generation of teachers who know what to do with this thing.

There are people, very good people, working in the area of writing. But I think it is terribly important, related to reading, speaking and listening, but it is the hardest of all of those.

I would like to talk mainly about reading, and I will further focus my remarks on two broad questions:

First, what are some of the problems in reading achievement? Is achievement declining? Second, what is the most appropriate assistance that the Federal Government can provide in order to improve achievement in reading?

READING ACHIEVEMENT AT HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

The most serious problems in reading seem to be at the higher levels—at high school and college levels. An some of the problems at these levels stem from sucess; that is, the greater staying power of young people in high schools and colleges, with more of them remaining in school longer than in previous years, and longer than in any other country in the world.

Many of the poorer readers who would have dropped out of school earlier now remain in high school and enter community colleges with basic skills below what they need for their studies.

Thus, a large proportion of our current reading problems stem from the higher expectations and requirements stemming from the longer schooling of all students, and particularly those of less favored social and cultural backgrounds.

The expectations for higher reading achievement have also been growing at the level of work. According to a recent study, the number of blue-collar jobs in New York City have been decreasing while the number of white-collar jobs have been increasing.

If we assume that on the whole, white-collar entry work requires a higher level of literacy than blue-collar work, we can understand the frustration of both employees and employers. To keep up with these changing job requirements, it would seem that literacy levels for high school graduates will have to rise.

So far, I have argued that the seeming reading problem among the youth of this Nation may to some extent be attributed to a rise in literacy expectations in high school, in college, and at work.

There are, however, also signs of a decline of reading achievement within the older high school and college group. The national assessment reading achievement results of the late 1970's, as compared to the middle 1970's, show a decrease for age 17, Grade 12, particularly on the items testing inferences and critical reading.

The reading achievement for the 13-year-olds—grade 8—was about the same in the late 1970's as compared to the middle 1970's. It was significantly higher, however, for 9-year-olds—grade 4. I will refer later in greater detail to the general increase in achievement for children in grades 1 to 4.

The decline in reading achievement of 17-year-olds on the national assessment confirms, in a sense, the great concern of parents, some of whom have recently sued their school systems for educational malpractice, with regard to the reading achievement of their children.

Indeed, if a 17-year-old can read only as well as a 10-year-old, that is, at a fifth grade level, he can truly hold few or no jobs as Peter Doe's mother testified several years back.

There also appears to be a decline in verbal abilities over a 14-year period by those high school students going on to college, as measured by the scholastic aptitude test. There has been a steady decline in both verbal and quantitative scores, although the verbal scores have declined more rapidly than the mathematics scores.

The reasons for the decline are many and have appeared in a report by Willard Wirtz and the panel on score decline in 1977. The panel met for 2 years and concluded on the basis also of nearly 30 position papers and studies that among the possible nonschool

causes were the increase in numbers of less advantaged students taking the SAT, the general societal restlessness, too heavy viewing of TV, single-parent homes, et cetera.

Among the school factors cited were declining standards of the curriculum and easier textbooks. Indeed, a study commissioned by the SAT panel and done in our laboratory found that the declining SAT verbal scores were associated with the declining difficulty level of the textbooks.

We found in a comparision of SAT verbal scores with the difficulty levels of textbooks over a 30-year period that those children who studied at a time when their textbooks were easier tended to have the lower SAT verbal scores; those who studied at a time of harder textbooks had higher SAT verbal scores.

Let me try to summarize the knowledge on the literacy of the older group:

There are serious problems here. Most problems come because more literate people are needed with even higher literacy levels than in previous years. Thus, even if we were doing as well as we did 30 or 40 years ago, we would be in trouble. Literacy is like income: as we succeed, more is needed.

Some of our problems also come from the rather low expectations in schools and in society today. Our study of textbooks suggests that reading achievements can be improved by more challenging textbooks and curricula. This needs to be studied in collaboration by universities, schools and textbook publishers.

The current concern with competency testing for high school graduation has yet to prove its value in increasing literacy of high school students. It can work if tests are diagnostic, are given early in elementary school and at later critical points, and if provision is made for remedial help for those who do not meet minimal requirements from the very start.

Also, the competency standards should be high enough to meet the growing standards for continuing education and for work. Many State competency tests seem to require too low a level of achievement for these purposes. Some of the tests require about an eight grade reading level and some require even less.

How hard should the tests be?

New York State came out recently for a 10th-grade reading level. In Toward A Literate Society, the report of the Reading Committee of the National Academy of Education, of which I was a member, the following description of literacy proposes a higher level:

> What is literacy? We take the position that the reading problem in the United States should not be stated as one of teaching people to read at a level of minimal literacy, but one of assuring that every person arriving at adulthood will be able to read and understand a whole spectrum of printed materials one is likely to encounter in daily life.
>
> In terms of grade levels of difficulty, a meaningful goal would be attaining 12th grade literacy by all adults, roughly, the ability to read with understanding a magazine like Newsweek and the The New York Times.

Most reading standards assumed in State sponsored minimal competency tests seem to be much lower.

Let me add that there already exist many of the techniques, the procedures and the knowledge, to help these students achieve normal levels of literacy for their age and general ability. Study after study shows that remedial reading works, with significant

improvement over the short run and over the long run. Studies also show that reading problems can be prevented by schools and where the problems exist they can usually be treated in the school. Such school characteristics as strong administrative leadership, and all out effort on children's reading, the availability of professionally trained reading specialists, frequent evaluation, availability of books, etc. are found in schools with excellent progress.

READING IN THE EARLY GRADES

Let me move from the older group to the youngest, the children in grades 1, 2, 3, and 4.

For the past 5 years or so, every survey—the national assessment as well as local, city, and State testing— shows better results for this age group than in previous years. This group shows a great success.

Why? No doubt, the answers are as complex as for the declines among the older students; but I will chance a few.

The changes in methods and materials, particularly the dramatic changes in the reading textbooks for grades 1, 2, and 3. In the early 1970's, most basal readers had become more challenging; they taught more phonics; they taught it earlier; and they taught more new words at each grade level.

The two educational TV shows for young children—Sesame Street and The Electric Company—funded by the Office of Education and by private foundations first developed in the late 1960's and early 1970's also emphasized the decoding/phonic aspects of reading. These also gave support to parents and teachers in starting reading instruction early.

Federal support for Head Start and other early childhood programs; the relatively heavy funding for basic and applied research on beginning reading, also contributed to the improvement.

Most of the above efforts were based on the assumption that it is good to have an early start in reading at home and in school. Until the middle 1960's, there had been a preference for a later start.

READING IN THE MIDDLE GRADES

With regard to children in grades 5 to 8—the middle grades, until recently, the various assessments have shown little change in their reading scores as compared to those achieved in earlier years.

Thus, compared to the primary reading group, this group has made less progress. It is important to note, also, that it has received relatively little research and development support, as compared to early reading. One should also realize that reading in the middle grades, and beyond, is qualitatively different from reading in the early grades. Beginning with grades 4 and 5, much greater emphasis is placed on previous knowledge, vocabulary, concepts and reasoning, while in the early grades the emphasis is one of recognizing and sounding words.

Since 1976, this age group has been receiving new interest with the establishment of the Center for the Study of Reading at The University of Illinois, by the National Institute of Education.

It is hoped that more attention will continue to be placed on this level, for it would appear that poor achievement here can only

result in poor achievement at the high school and college levels. The children in grades 4 to 8 begin to read seriously for new information, ideas, and attitudes and the ability to do well here is needed for their general education and for reading in junior and senior high school and in college.

SUMMARY OF READING ACHIEVEMENT

To sum up the current status on reading achievement, it seems that most children in the early grades, 1 through 4, are doing better than those of 5 to 10 years earlier. Middle grade children seem to be holding on in relation to the past.

High school and college students seem to be doing less well in relation to the past and particularly in relation to rising needs.

National as well as international studies show that socioeconomic status is a large factor in predicting a child's reading and other verbal achievement. However, when the homes of the least advantaged children provide educational stimulation, they achieve well. Research also exists to indicate that the achievement of children from families of low education and income respond well to school programs with given characteristics, such as reading specialists, parental cooperation, et cetera.

Children with reading and learning disabilities—those whose reading ability lags behind their general ability to learn—also need special diagnostic and remedial treatment if they are to read at a level commensurate with their general ability.

WHAT CAN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT DO

One, I would suggest that major emphasis now be put on those areas where we are now weak—on the low reading achievement in high school and college; on the poor achievement of children whose background is limited and who are the lowest scorers on the national assessment and other tests, and on those with reading and learning disability.

Two, special funds should be set aside for implementing and applying what is already known from Government and foundation supported research studies completed since the middle 1960's, particularly with regard to raising the achievement of children of low SES background, bilingual children, and those with reading disability.

Three, set up procedures whereby each school finds the most workable means for preventing failure and maintaining high levels of achievement.

Tests are now regularly used. What seems to be lacking, however, is giving help as early as it is needed. Thus, with the concern and advocacy of one caring adult who is knowledgeable in reading development and in test interpretation who will follow up the progress of each child in the school, working with teachers and specialists, it is possible, to bring each child to his potential.

Generally, the earlier the help, the more effective it is and therefore the greater the cost effectiveness.

Yet, too many students continue to be left behind. I recommend a demonstration through a collaboration of school systems and

universities to create schemes for early assessment and for early prevention of failure.

Four, we need to study and understand the effects of TV on literacy development. TV seems to be beneficial for the verbal and reading development of younger children, but some studies show that it may retard reading achievement in the middle and upper elementary grades. Yet research in Germany seems to indicate that TV can be a strong incentive to reading.

Five, there is a need to make more effective use of existing research, particularly with regard to reading and literacy.

Six, there is a need for greater collaboration in research and development of reading. Along with universities and schools, there is a need for collaboration with such organizations as textbook and other publishers, newspapers and magazine publishers, industry, libraries, and the like.

Senator EAGLETON. Why have the textbook publishers, I guess, by design, reduced the difficulty of their textbooks?

Dr. CHALL. We really don't know. We have proposed such a study, hypothesizing that textbook publishing cannot be considered as something outside the educational system. It is very much a part of the prevailing theories, education philosophies, and research.

Textbooks are written by university professors, most are specialists in the various curricular areas. They know what the schools and the publishers will accept and know what will not be accepted at a particular time.

Book salesmen are out in the schools finding out what teachers and administrators want. Therefore, you cannot say the publishers are solely to blame. This is something that educators probably asked for and wanted.

It is really a complex problem that we look forward to studying.

Senator EAGLETON. Let's assume that textbook publishers are trying to respond to what the teachers in the classrooms are telling them—put that in a footnote—textbook publishers will print anything in any way, shape or form, hopeful that all of last year's books can be thrown in the wastebasket so we can buy a new set of this year's books. That is a personal note of mine, and you need not comment on it.

If you are correct in your assumption that publishers are doing this in response to suggestions from classroom teachers, is it conceivable that the classroom teachers find it easier to teach at a lower level of achievement than to teach at a higher level?

Dr. CHALL. It may be. But it is not a simple matter. Publishers will say, "The teachers want us to do it this way." The universities have to be drawn into this as well, in the research they do. Thus, publishers take their cues from others besides teachers.

The decision network includes educational theorists and researchers.

Overall, the problem of textbook difficulty needs to be looked at in terms of a symbiotic relationship between universities, schools and publishers, if we are going to understand the problem and effect a change.

Senator EAGLETON. On page 5 of your testimony, you mention the word "phonics." The sentences read: "The changes in methods

and materials, particularly the dramatic changes in the textbooks for grades 1, 2, and 3. In the early 1970's they have become more challenging; they taught more phonics, and earlier * * *."

One of our earlier witnesses was Dr. Rudolph Flesch, the author of "Why Johnny Can't Read." That was a best seller back in the 1950's. I trust you know Dr. Flesch and his notion that if we just go back to phonics, this thing can cure itself.

The next witness was Mr. Paul Copperman, who has written a new book, "The Literacy Hoax." He said, "Flesch if off his rocker." He said, "His discipline is, knock a couple of kids over the head."

What about phonics and Flesch's book? That was very popular.

Dr. CHALL. I wrote a book in 1967 called "Learning To Read: The Great Debate," which was on that issue and others as well. I reviewed the research of Flesch and interviewed him and many others.

The essence of the research was that a "code emphasis," the broader term for "phonics," produces better results in the first grade and through the third.

As a result of these findings most publishers changed the reading textbooks, putting more emphasis on phonics in the beginning reading program. As a result, also, the readers taught more words at each grade level. Generally, the most recent national assessment of reading as well as State and local assessments indicate that achievement in the primary grades has improved.

Does it solve every problem?

Nothing in reading instruction solves every problem. But generally phonics for beginning readers has helped and to a considerable extent.

Senator EAGLETON. Could you expand a little bit, or speculate maybe a bit, as to why the dropoff in grades 5 to 8? The record appears to be a bit murky.

Dr. CHALL. I am not sure, really, that there is a dropoff.

Roger Farr has done then and now comparisons and shows no dropoff for these grades.

Large cities that report results for grades in elementary and high school tend to find that first, second, and third grades have been gaining in reading but there is no gain for the middle grades.

If the middle grade children do not maintain the gains made in grades 1, 2, and 3, it requires serious study. We know less about how reading is best learned at those grades. It is less specific than in the primary grades. It is more of a language and thought process. Also, a great deal of reading is needed in order to develop during these grades.

In the first, second, and third grades, if the child reads at home, it is helpful. But it isn't as essential as it is for the child in the middle grades.

The middle grade child needs to read a great deal, in school and at home. Thus, the children who own books, generally those of more affluent parents, have an advantage over children whose parents cannot afford to buy the books and magazines.

There is also less agreement on the methods and materials most appropriate for reading instruction in the middle grades.

Much of the reading at grades 5 to 8 is learning how to use reading for gaining new knowledge, new ideas, new values. It is the

beginning of reading to learn about something that was not heard or otherwise known before.

Many people are now trying to understand the process of reading comprehension and how it might be taught better. Until more is known, it seems useful to expose children to much reading, at home by parents and siblings and by themselves. Thus their language is enriched and their reading stimulated. This kind of help has been found to be useful and is suggested even before any comprehensive theory is developed.

During the right to read days, a great deal of extra money was allocated for remedial instruction. Soon after, it was announced that a lack of funds made it necessary to close down some libraries or shorten the hours of others. Such actions can keep us in a perpetual state of no gain since reading skills gained in remedial sessions can only be lost without opportunities for practice afforded by libraries. This is very important for the middle graders particularly. They must have books in addition to reading skills.

Senator EAGLETON. Very good.

Dr. CHALL. We seem to be holding on in the middle grades, although schools in inner cities report declines. We could be doing more and better. Perhaps the next group of middle graders tested will be doing better since it is the one that has made gains in the primary grades.

Senator EAGLETON. Not every reading disability is dyslexia. That is a relatively rate type of reading disability?

Dr. CHALL. Dyslexia is defined as reading difficulty found among children, anywhere from 2 to 15 percent—and some put it at 20 percent of children—who have normal intelligence but who suffer difficulty in learning to read and who do not make the expected progress.

Many specialists in special education define it further as severe difficulty occuring very rarely in from 1 percent or 2 percent of children which would not include causes stemming from sensory defects, emotional problems, impoverished family background, bilingualism, or low intelligence.

Senator EAGLETON. In our earlier hearings, the same day we had Dr. Giamatti of Yale, we had Mr. Willard Wirtz, to whom you have made reference in your testimony thus far, on this question of the negative impact of television on the intellect of young Americans.

Dr. Giamatti thought that this has been unduly exaggerated. He didn't find television all that dangerous.

Mr. Wirtz—and I applauded Mr. Wirtz because my gut instinct was to agree with him—Mr. Wirtz came down very heavy on television as having a stultifying impact on youngsters' intellect.

Dr. CHALL. I think the effect of television deserves very serious study. The paper by Wilbur Schramm for the advisory panel on SAT score decline and that of his students point to both positive and negative effects. They found that the vocabulary development of young children who watched TV was about a year ahead of those who did not watch. Among children in the middle grades comprehension scores of the heavy TV watchers decreased over a 3-year period.

It may very well be that TV watching cuts down on time for reading.

In some homes, it isn't TV alone that keeps children from reading but its general style with regards to reading and writing.

When I attended a meeting recently in the Library of Congress at the Center for the Book, I heard of another view on TV. A researcher from Germany reported that their latest studies show that TV is one of the greatest incentives to reading. Viewers seek out books on topics they view on TV. They find that reading is further enhanced when viewers are informed where the books can be obtained. The book stores, he claims, sell out the books on topics seen on TV. This is what I think we should be looking into as well.

Senator EAGLETON. That was German TV?

Dr. CHALL. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Undoubtedly in Germany they don't run "Charlie's Angels," and all that other garbage.

Dr. CHALL. I don't know and I don't have a copy of the report. But I have heard similar things about the effect of TV shows on book reading in the United States. Since old and young watch so much, we should be looking into U.S. TV as a vehicle for language development and for development of literacy.

Senator EAGLETON. A great deal of what we show on PBS is lifted and paid for out of British television, the BBC, and CBC, too. There is no country in the world that shows consistently unadulterated garbage as does the three American commercial networks and constantly the textbook publishers are downgrading their achievements for American youngsters by teaching down.

So it is true that American television and the intellectual outreach of the commercial networks is lowered every year.

It is very interesting that Mr. William Paley, the founding father of CBS, in his new biography makes the suggestion that every TV network, the big three, have 2 hours a week of prime time television broadcasting that is geared to a higher intellect.

The other two networks immediately rejected that, both NBC, now run by Freddie Silverman, the creator of the cesspool, or one who has reduced the art form.

He immediately rejected Paley's proposal and so did ABC and many of the executives of Mr. Paley's own network of CBS.

Obviously, it is a sore subject.

From my own experience—I have two youngsters who spend an unseemly amount of their own time in front of the television—I think it has a negative impact.

Could you comment: How could we use television for a positive impact? How could we teach reading skills by using television?

Dr. CHALL. I think "Sesame Street" and "The Electric Company" were excellent examples of the use of TV for teaching early and prereading. Not only did they produce shows for use here but they have been used internationally for teaching English as a second language.

Senator EAGLETON. We have had before us Dr. Pat Graham, Director of the National Institute of Education; and she testified that the bulk of "Sesame Street" audiences is middle and upper income children, and those children learn those basic skills.

How could we better direct that kind of educational TV to the most needy audience?

Dr. CHALL. That is a hard question.

I think with respect to getting the poorer children to watch "Sesame Street" and "The Electric Company", "The Electric Company" was used in schools and thus for poorer as well as upper children.

"Sesame Street" wasn't available to many poor children because their TV's did not have reception of public service stations. Also, the child of "Sesame Street" age is not able to turn on his own TV. This has to be done for him and the adult who does so has to understand its importance for the child.

I would also have more TV offerings on children's literature, on stories that they would like and that would be available for them to read afterward. I would make inexpensive copies of the books very widely available.

There is also need for a reading skills show for the middle grades and for adults whose reading skills are limited.

For middle grade students, shows on the physical and social sciences, on history would help teach basic concepts and background needed to read and understand their textbooks and library books.

Senator EAGLETON. Very good, Dr. Chall.

I have a few questions, but I will have to limit myself to a few because of the time.

It is said there is a desperate shortage of remedial reading teachers in this country. If there is such shortage, how would you best deploy the existing teachers that we now have? Should the remedial teacher be teaching the classroom teacher or work directly with the students, or whatever?

Dr. CHALL. There is a shortage of remedial reading teachers mainly because schools do not have the funds to pay for them. I suspect there are many trained people around who can do this specialized work if appointed. It is hard to say whether generally it is best for the teacher or the remedial specialist to work with the child. To begin with, the classroom teacher must be knowledgable of best procedures, methods, and materials if we are to stop the proliferation of failure.

There are always some children who just don't fit, who are 1 year behind, 2 years behind, and even more. For such children, it would seem that special attention and special time is needed—time that a classroom teacher may not have, even though the skill to do so is not lacking. In a classroom of 30 children, a teacher seldom has the time to work with the one, two, or three children who need special help. If the teacher gives each child 2 hours a week of instruction, it would take away time from the other 30.

I should like to emphasize that remedial reading works, that children who receive such help do significantly better than those who do not—immediately after the remediation and after 10 to 20 years later. Thus, money spent for remedial instruction is money well invested. In the long run the United States would find it is really cheap in terms of money that needs to be spent for the accumulated problems of those who did not receive the treatment they needed when young.

A reading problem does not go away. It just gets worse with time, if not treated. Without treatment some of the children end up

where they shouldn't end up, as delinquents, in prisons, unemployed.

Remedial help by a trained person is really cheap, if we consider the full consequences.

Senator EAGLETON. There is a program called "Reading Is Fundamental—RIF," which Mrs. Robert McNamara, wife of the former Secretary of Defense, and now president of the World Bank, has been working with.

Do you have any familiarity with that program?

Dr. CHALL. I am acquainted with it and served on an advisory committee for a study of its effectiveness. The program gives books to children whose parents can not afford to buy for them.

The only suggestion that I have is that each child gets more books. The ideal for each child is to be surrounded by books. Therefore, we have to find ways of getting inexpensive books to them and libraries that are close by.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you care to immerse yourself in the debate of whether, at the 12th grade, there ought to be a competency test and those who pass a competency test get a duly authenticated diploma from high school *x*; whereas, those who fail the competency test get a certificate of attendance at high school *x*?

Dr. CHALL. The value of such a competency test would depend on good instruction, whether diagnostic tests and needed help are given in earlier grades. It could be a rather punitive thing to just give a competency test in the 12th grade with no attempt made to assess their reading achievement earlier in the 4th grade and 8th grade, for example, and help given early if needed.

Senator EAGLETON. If you were the American dictator, would you mandate a national test to be taken in every school in the country?

Dr. CHALL. No; I wouldn't. For in a real sense we already have national tests. There are at the present time standardized tests for elementary and high school students, achievement tests that are validated and used on a national level. The scholastic aptitude test and the college board tests are also national tests given on a national basis and the test results are used for research and for making college admissions decisions in all parts of the United States. Our textbooks are national textbooks in that few, if any, are written specifically for given States or localities.

Senator EAGLETON. You recall my question to Dean Rosovsky about the connection between Harvard College and Roxbury High School. It is my understanding that for 3 or so years there has been a connection between the college and Roxbury High School.

Has that relationship had any beneficial impact on the reading skills and the writing skills, hopefully, of Roxbury High School students?

Dr. CHALL. As far as I know, it has. I was involved only in the planning stage, but my colleague, Dr. Helen Popp, was working with several of our doctoral students who developed a reading program based mainly on tutoring. The school and students were very pleased with the program and with what the students were doing. I don't have the details of the results, but I will ask if there is a report.

Senator EAGLETON. We would like to have it.

Does that relationship continue today?

Dr. CHALL. I will inquire.

Senator EAGLETON. We would like to know more about it, and we would like to know if there are new techniques that are being used, if they have enhanced the basic skills testing or if they have no impact. We would like to know what the fact is.

Dr CHALL. My impression is that the school was delighted with what was being done. The Harvard/Roxbury program was directed by Joyce Grant. A group of our doctoral students in reading were going down to Roxbury to work with the students and they liked what was happening and what they were doing.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Dr. Chall. You have been a very patient and informative witness.

Our next witness is the noted education writer Jonathan Kozol, best known for his book, "Death At An Early Age," an account of classroom life in the Boston public schools.

Mr. Kozol's most recent work, "Children of the Revolution," chronicles the sweeping attack on literacy launched by the Castro regime in Cuba in the early 1960's.

We will have a 5-minute recess.

The committee will be back in 5 minutes.

[Brief recess.]

Senator EAGLETON. The committee will be in session.

With Dr. Kozol's agreement, we will hear from Dr. Wood.

He is here under a considerable time restraint. We are going to ask him to highlight his testimony and we will put his full statement in the record; and then we will go back to Dr. Kozol.

STATEMENT OF DR. ROBERT WOOD, SUPERINTENDENT, BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Dr. WOOD. Senator, may I say first I express my appreciation for being invited to testify with my colleagues before you and may I introduce a truly knowledgeable person from the Boston School Department on matters that are under your consideration.

Mrs. Beatrice Miller has been a teacher and principal and now is senior officer for competency and curriculum of the Boston system and represents, I think, part of the new dimensions in leadership within this system that I am proud to serve.

In highlighting my testimony, let me simply first welcome the committee, on behalf of the city of Boston and its public schools to the birthplace of public education in America and to indicate that you are holding these hearings at a time when I think a new stage in the development of the Boston schools is at hand.

The years of resistance that characterized the 1960's and 1970's, I believe, has passed. The school system is now incorporating the results of the desegregation order and orders into principal concerns and concentration on quality education, and it does so more in the tradition of an old and proud system.

We argue that the establishment of the Boston Latin School, across the street from English, in 1635 made it necessary to establish Harvard in 1636 so we could have a college to take our graduates; and it is the restoration of that tradition that Theodore White in his "In Search of History," talks about, the combination of vocational and book learning, and his knowledge to "wire lamps in

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series or in parallel, insulate or install cutoff switches," at the same time he became aware of the word "history."

It is in the context of restoring a new atmosphere and a new environment for Boston that we appear before you today, and we appear in an attitude and environment that I believe is partly a reaction against the uncertainties of a revolution in the curriculum in the classroom of the 1960's; and I believe it is also promising in terms of focusing attention on what the 10th generation of Americans really have to acquire in order to cope with the late 20th century and the 21st century.

Back to basics means written tests simply to warn us.

As we speak about back to basics, minimum competencies and fundamental education, it is important that we do not adopt a philosophy that is simplistic and nostalgic of basic skills that might have been appropriate for a rural or emerging nation, but are not appropriate today. We make that point in terms of the number of young people we educate, their ancestry and their backgrounds.

Boston is dealing, as most great cities, dealing with heterogeneous and varied cultures. Indeed, Mr. Chairman, we are the only one of the large cities in America that has no majority among our students. We possess multicultural backgrounds, black and white and of other ethnic and bilingual groups; that is unique and we intend to undertake to keep it that way; and as we try to respond to mandates that were set forth both by the Congress and by the State and which Commissioner Anrig testifed about earlier this morning, we are trying to stand to a mandate that does not place competency testing as a new means to track poor white, black, and other minorities, but that speaks to the real needs across the spectrum.

Some of the questions that we raise now, as we address our new curriculum programs, are not simply being satisfied, whether our students can read and write, or the old definition of basic skills, but they have a broader and more sophisticated definition and greater expectations.

The curriculum changes as well as the student body, the basic skills, the educational skills that the Boston schools focus on today, or the colleges.

If we ignore our responsibility to prepare young people to face the world of computers and an electronic economy, the changing role of the United States in the world economy, atomic energy, changing international populations, then we will do so at our peril.

While I think it is still important and essential for reading, writing, and arithmetic, it is important that, while someone should know the difference between Shakespeare and Dickens, one should also know the difference between Roots and Charlie's Angels, and in licensing and electronics. These are basic tools for all of us today. This is why we welcome Commissioner Anrig's rejection of a simplistic solution, and we welcome the opportunity that the Boston system has to prepare a program of a curriculum and competency that responds to our special and very unique population.

This is the change that we are now addressing. We will proceed on the basis of an individualized instruction. We will use testing as

an assessment of each child's mastery of the subject area in question.

As the student progresses through a continuum, parents, students, teachers, and administrators alike will be apprised of progress, where the student stands and where the student must go to achieve community-agreed-upon expectations. That is the heart of our program, Mr. Chairman.

It is the essence of my testimony, because what we look forward to is with each component of the teaching-learning triad, the teacher, the child, and the parent, secure in the knowledge of what is being taught and the goals to be reached. As that occurs, we believe our skill scores will escalate and improve even more than they have in the past 3 years.

Thank you very much, Mr. Chairman.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Dr. Wood, and I also thank Mrs. Miller for being with Dr. Wood.

In the interest of your time, if you don't mind, we will submit questions to you, Dr. Wood, and maybe to Mrs. Miller, if you will answer some for the record. This will accommodate your schedule and Dr. Kozol's, as well.

Dr. WOOD. Thank you very much.

[The prepared statement of Dr. Wood follows:]

TESTIMONY

given by

ROBERT WOOD

SUPERINTENDENT OF BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

ARTS AND HUMANITIES

BOSTON ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL
77 LOUIS PASTEUR AVENUE
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

APRIL 3, 1979

Mr. Chairman, Members of the Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities:

On behalf of the City of Boston and its public schools, I would like to welcome you to the birthplace of public education in America.

Your subcommittee is once again demonstrating its ability to monitor the contemporary concerns of professional educators as well as all concerned with teaching and learning.

I salute your selection of witnesses for today's panel and your recent efforts to solicit opinions of their outstanding colleagues across the nation.

I come to you with almost a decade of experience as the President of the University of Massachusetts and as the new manager of a mature urban education system that is slowly, but steadily emerging from the siege mentality that brought it before the Federal Court System.

Those years of resistance have passed. Today, the challenge before Boston's public schools is one of educational renewal. The school system is seeking ways to incorporate the results of the Court's initiative into a many-sided effort to create a desegregated public school system which provides a quality education for all its students.

It is an old and proud system that I am now privileged to head. One could not take the assignment without a sense of history. Boston Public Latin, just across the street

from us, was established in 1635. It is said that Harvard was founded in 1636 in order that there be a college to take Latin graduates. Benjamin Franklin, in 1783, bequeathed in compound interest one hundred pound sterling to be laid out for silver medals to boys "for the encouragement for scholarships."

It is to the restoration of that tradition -- after almost a generation of neglect, turmoil and confrontation -- that the present Committee and present administration are now committed.

Those who have had the joy of reading Theodore White's In Search of History, have caught the sense of that ambition. He wrote of his immediate school, the Christopher Gibson, in the late twenties. In his words, "Vocational and book-learning were taught in the same building. I can still tell a ripsaw from a crosscut saw by what was taught me (by a lady carpentry teacher, Miss Sprague) in the fourth grade. I can still wire lamps in series or in parallel, insulate or install cutoff switches by what was taught me in the fifth grade. But -- most importantly -- I first became aware of the word 'history' in the sixth grade..."

That combination of the practical and the intellectual, a sense of competence in skills and thought, prepared White for his future education at Harvard and for his extraordinary career.

The national atmosphere in which public education now moves is filled with both threat and promise. Today's

atmosphere is in part a reaction to some of the uncertainties created by the revolution in curriculum and classroom organization of the 1960's. It is also a reaction to the court suits which have forced public school administrations to recognize the constitutional rights of minority groups, female students, handicapped persons, and linguistic minorities. But today's focus on education is more than merely a reaction. This hearing and others like it hold a promise, in that they focus the country's attention on the effectiveness of classroom instruction and the capacity of our schools to enable students of today's generation -- which is very different from the generations of the past -- to develop and master those skills which they need in order to survive and succeed in the late 20th and 21st centuries.

I must begin with a warning that we have to be careful that terms like "back to basics," "minimum competencies," and "fundamental education" not become a retreat from the challenge to develop school programs which will enable all of tomorrow's graduates to master the complex environment of our present and future world.

Indeed, the challenges facing the American educational system today are quite different from those in 1950 and there are several factors which we must consider before we become nostalgic for "the good old days" and embrace the most extreme version of testing for basic skills.

It must finally be clear to everyone across this nation that equal educational opportunity means education for everyone. Schools are justifiably being required to serve more of the population than ever before. In 1920, 17% of all young people completed high school; while in 1950, 59% of all our young people completed high school; and in 1976, 75% of all young people completed high school.

Federal and State Legislatures are mandating access to schools for young people who previously not only dropped out of school, but who were also able to drop into the world of work in factories, farms and shops across our land. It must be stressed that those students who drop out today do not drop into the world of work. They enter the world of welfare, of crime, and eventually our criminal justice system.

Those who have remained, and participated in vocational education programs have often been the victims of another separate and unequal education process. Given second-class citizenship, any program will produce, at best, a second- or third-rate product. Occupational education will, and does, succeed when all of the partners believe that the program is equal, important, and often a life-making and saving process.

I would advise the Committee that the Federal budget presently before Congress provides only for what is euphemistically labeled level funding for vocational education. This, realistically, means that our national commitment to

millions of schools will be reduced as inflation rises at a double digit pace.

With the encouragement and support of members of this Committee, the Congress pledged to assume an increasing portion of the cost of education for the handicapped. The increase was to be fram the 5% of 1977 to 40% in 1981. The funds promised were not received in fiscal year 1979, only 12% rather than the 20% pledged was allocated, and though the fiscal 1980 appropriation should account for 30% of funding, the budget request has been held at 12%.

Now, I point this out because between the ages of 13 and 21 alone, there are over 4,200 young people in the Boston School System who have special needs. These students were not identified, and not properly served, just two years ago.

It is essential that in the 1970's we not allow the new move for competency testing to be used as a new means of tracking our poor white, black and other minority students out of school -- where they will face a world of unemployment, welfare, and growing resentment. It is very difficult to measure what is "minimum" competency. The current adult literacy rate in the United States is equivalent to the sixth grade. If we are forced to judge our schools primarily by test scores is it realistic to expect poorer urban students to compete with richer suburban students?

Given the "testing controversy" which has emerged in

the past 10 - 20 years, we need to question if, in fact, we were even then producing students with "good basic skills." The questions raised forces us to consider the validity of the tests ("what were they really measuring") and a clear recognition that these tests were culturally biased. We need also to consider the causal relationships which were inferred by good or bad test scores. Did good test scores on the part of the student show that that educational process was good and did poor scores indicate that some learners were uneducable? How did we look at casual relationships?

Indeed, 10 to 20 years ago, we may have been satisfied to teach our students to "read and write." We would not, nor should we, today be satisfied by the same definition of "basic skills." To exist in today's society, the interpretation of basic skills requires a broader and more sophisticated definition. Expectations need to be greater because the demands of our technological society are greater.

We must remember that the curriculum, as well as the student body, has changed during the past 25 years. During this same period, middle class suburban schools were experiencing the post-Sputnik curriculum revolution, largely initiated by a number of psychologists, educators, and scientists working in the Boston area -- such persons as Jerome Bruner of Harvard, Jerome Weisner of MIT, Jerrold Zacharias of MIT, Franklin Patterson of Tufts, and others who stimulated a national development of

curriculum which incorporated learning theory with the most advanced scientific modes of inquiry. While many now properly question some of the problems which have arisen from how the new math, physicis and biology were applied, the theory of developing inquiry and critical skills which is the underpinning of this curriculum revolution has grown stronger and more sophisticated through the years of its application in education.

The educational skills which will be "basic" in the world of 2000 are very complex. How can we ignore our responsibility to prepare our future citizens to face a world of computers, electronic media, the changing role of the United States in the world economy with declining national and international resources, over-population, and atomic energy? The basic computational and reading skills which were once sufficient for a rural America simply will not suffice for tomorrow.

It was because Massachusetts' Commissioner of Education Gregory Anrig was unwilling to adopt a simplistic solution to the issue of competency testing that on January 23, 1979, the Massachusetts Board of Education gave final approval to the statewide Basic Skills Improvement Policy. This policy states that each Massachusetts community, including Boston, has until August 1, 1980, to establish what that particular community considers minimum standards for elementary and secondary students in reading, mathematics, and writing.

By August 1981, similar standards must be established for speaking and listening skills. Concurrent with the development of standards in these skill areas, each Massachusetts community must choose or develop tests to measure student achievement, and must administer these tests before the end of the school year to students.

Unlike many other states, Massachusetts is not proposing holding high school diplomas until a student passes the test, nor is it requiring the use of a single statewide test.

The challenge for the Boston Public School System is to address such problems as the proper organization of subject matter, the identification and training of teachers to use effective methods and careful planning of the involvement of businesses, colleges, cultural institutions and community agencies in providing effective education. We must define basic education in a way that builds on the diversity of a large public school system and the creativity and variety and talent available in a revitalized city.

We are returning to the idea of continuous progress based on individualized instruction. We will use testing as an assessment of each child's mastery of the subject area in question. As the student progresses through the continuum, parents, students, teachers and administrators alike will be apprised of progress -- where the student stands and where the student must go to achieve commonly agreed upon expectations --

That is the heart of our program, Mr. Chairman.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Kozol, who was nice enough to stand aside.

STATEMENT OF DR. JONATHAN KOZOL, AUTHOR

Dr. KOZOL. I would like to give a brief statement to you; I will then answer any questions you would like.

Senator EAGLETON. Very good.

Dr. KOZOL. It seems to me, Senator, this morning, in this particular week, we stand at a frightening moment in the shadow of radioactive vapors hanging over our heads. It wouldn't make sense for me to sit here and speak to you of our purely mechanical problems without some view of moral purpose.

I want to speak of the compartmentalization of learning which has been occurring in public education and university education for several generations.

It is essential, I think, to refuse to speak of skills at all if we will not allow ourselves to speak in the same breath of the possible uses of those skills: Whether they be used to grant life or deny life, to empower the poor or simply to profit those who already have more than their proper share.

It would also, I think, be dangerous if we were to continue to speak solely of the young, still in school, but fail to speak of the larger group of illiterate adults. All the clever educational gadgets, all the brilliant innovations, will do nothing for those adults.

According to reliable sources, 20 percent of U.S. adults, men and women, are functional illiterates. That figure comes from the New York Times.

Forty-four percent of black adults, 56 percent of those with Spanish surnames, cannot read enough to understand a want ad, cannot decipher warning signals in a factory, cannot fill out a job application.

This seems unforgivable in a nation such as ours.

The victim lives forever locked in a prison cell of silence.

If we are going to deal with this crisis and do so rapidly and effectively, it seems to me we have to get rid of the myth we don't know how to teach poor people how to read.

The challenge we face, so far as I am concerned, is not that we don't know how, but rather—in terms of Government policy—that we don't appear to want to.

The figures for adult illiterates are uncomfortably concordant with what our Government regards as an acceptable rate of unemployment. The two figures repeatedly go hand in hand.

Second, it seems to me we have to get past the uselessness of numbers games, of calculating how many illiterates we have in the United States. Some estimate less, most estimate more than the figures given by Newsweek and The New York Times. It doesn't matter a great deal, because the real figures will never be known until we set to work, since most illiterates will not confess their own most crippling need until they are confronted with a loyal and energetic friend and teacher who is prepared to help them.

We are going to have to rely on an active census, an ongoing census, rather than a statistic established in advance.

Third, it seems to me we have to get rid of the myth that teaching reading is a mystery, complex and intricate, the property

of some sort of priestly cast. This is a myth perpetrated either by those who are inept or else by those vested interest in intimidating the rest of us.

I once asked a school principal when I was teaching, "What do we mean when we tell a parent a child has dyslexia"?

She said, "It means we don't have an idea in the world why he can't read." The term is enough to frighten a parent.

I have been able, myself, to develop a solid sixth-grade reading level with previously illiterate teenage kids in less than 2 months, and I did this with only 2 weeks of training. I never had any prior education preparation. I mean, I never went to an education college.

After 2 weeks of training and 60 days of teaching, a group of 18 kids were reading at the sixth grade level. In Brazil it has been done in less than 40 days.

In Cuba, they required an average of 2 months per family, a total of 9 months in the entire nation.

The reason we have never succeeded in the United States is that we give the issue all the things that never count: press, promotion, endless conferences, and endless talk, but no serious national commitment, no sense of high priority, no sense that it could lead to something better and different right away in the lives of adults.

I don't think it requires a revolution, a total transformation of our social system, as some people might imagine. It does require an all-out, unrelenting battle—and I use that word purposely—conducted on a war footing, a national emergency, carried out in the same way we would react to flood, pestilence, or invasion.

We are not at war with an external enemy. We are at war with ignorance in our own midst. If we are to pull off a triumph of the kind that I propose, and to do so in 1 year, we are going to have to establish a teacher-learner ratio of 1 to 5 at the most. The ratio that was successful in Cuba was one to four.

We are speaking, then, of something like 5 million teachers. There is no way we can find them in the ranks of those who are now teachers in the public schools. There aren't enough. There is only one place we can find them. We will have to issue an appeal to those among our high school and university pupils who are already highly competent, and there are plenty.

We will have to issue an appeal for a full summer and a fall semester of activist participation. Instead of studying the problems of democracy for 6 months, we would give them an opportunity to go out and solve one of those problems. It would probably be the most powerful semester of education in their life.

In order for any of this to happen, we will have to demolish the widespread media myth of an apathetic student population. The young people of this Nation hold in their hands the power, and in their hearts the decency, to solve the problem of adult illiteracy in the United States. I am convinced the ethics and the passion of the students of this Nation are unbroken.

For 7 years, ever since approximately 1972, when Richard Nixon was telling our children to put away their conscience and go back to class, students have lacked a concrete focus for their energies. The literacy struggle offers just that focus.

My proposal is offered on behalf of the National Literacy Coalition, which now represents approximately 28 separate groups. There are several obvious questions of logistics.

My own suggestion is that youthful volunteers ought to receive a 10-day, maybe 2-week, crash course in the basics of a strong phonetic method, heightened by the addition of specific, charged, or, as some people call them, dangerous words, words which have proven in past undertakings to bear the greatest power of provocation.

When I say dangerous words, I do not have in mind such words as Dick and Jane, but words rather, like grief and pain, and lease and license, power, protest, and police.

A lease on a house, a lease on a decent way of life, a license to drive a car, a license to stand up with dignity beneath the Sun. These are the kinds of words which set the blood beating faster in the veins of people.

My own suggestion is that our youthful volunteers would operate in multiethnic teams, black, white, Hispanic, contrived to fend off any dangers of that missionary approach which so often has subverted the best efforts of young people in the Peace Corps and in the struggles of the 1960's.

So far as expenses are concerned, the struggle to eradicate adult illiteracy could not conceivably cost as much as it is costing us right now to live with the humiliating status quo. It costs us $60 billion in a decade solely in welfare costs and lowered productivity. It would not cost one-tenth this sum to end the problem forever in 1 year.

It would, moreover, be a one-time cost.

There are, however, a number of additional hidden costs of living with the status quo: Industrial accidents skyrocket when men and women cannot read the danger signs, the fire warnings and simple instructions that are part of every entry-level job today. Insurance premiums for every one of us increase as a direct result.

Street crime also increases in almost direct proportion to adult illiteracy. The highest single locus of adult illiterates is the prison population.

Completely apart from the human price, it costs taxpayers up to $40,000 yearly to keep someone in prison. With inflation, we are speaking of $500,000 in a decade. It becomes apparent now that this is an issue in which every citizen of the United States, whatever their political position, has a direct concern.

Not surprisingly, the print media have been the first to demonstrate support for the idea of an all-out attack. The reason is clear. Every newly literate adult becomes part of the market for the publishers of books and magazines. It is hard indeed to know who could oppose this plan. Whether we speak of the heads of sophisticated corporations, insurance executives, law-and-order people, the press, the publishers, the teachers, or simply the advocates of any kind of decent social change, it is one of the few plans which can hardly fail to profit everybody.

It is also perhaps the sole significant issue on which enlightened business and the ethical students of this Nation can agree.

There are two cautionary points that must be made: First, in regard to the use of charged or dangerous words, the question will be asked if this is really necessary or if it is really worth the risk.

Is there, perhaps, some danger in the use of dangerous words—the kinds of words I described?

Will poor black people, for example, who do not have access to doctors, grow disruptive once they learn to read and write enough to understand the grim statistics for black infant death in the United States?

Will they be dangerous once they possess the skills to understand the lease they sign in order to inhabit an apartment they cannot abide for payment of a rent which they cannot afford?

Will they be dangerous if they possess a license to drive mediocre cars out of a despairing slum into a neighborhood in which they still are not permitted to obtain a home by mortgage, or to send their kids to school?

Doctor, license, lease—these are three dangerous words.

These are the kinds of words we are going to have to use, with whatever technical method we employ, if we should hope to help to liberate poor people from the crowded prisons of their souls, to give voice to their longings, to give both lease and license to their rage.

John F. Kennedy said, "Those who make peaceful revolution impossible make violent revolution inevitable."

The dangerous words to which I have referred are just precisely words and syllables which are most likely to incite the silent victims of an unjust social situation to embark upon a peaceful revolution in the yearning to escape the servitude of silence.

If our society feels it cannot possibly afford this, then there are many people in this country who may be forced to ask if we can possibly afford this kind of social system.

The final cautionary point I want to make, has to do with the expression "Back to Basics," and some of its unfortunate implications.

Unhappily, what this phrase means is not simply back to hard work on essential skills. For many people, it also implies back to mindless rote and repetition, reckless use of racist or class-oriented testing, back to blind obedience, senseless and ruthless competition and self-interest.

We have had enough of basic blind obedience, whether it meant marching into Watergate to steal, or to My Lai to kill.

Sensible emphasis on survival skills must not mean a backslide to unthinking jingoism, ruthlessness and cruelty of the kind that closed our colleges and schools and killed our children at Kent State, nor must we allow ourselves to draw a surgical separation between skills and applications, between competence and ethics.

Nothing could be more of a disaster than to let this happen once again in the United States.

When we speak of skills, but not of their possible evil applications, I think we should remind ourselves that some of the most competent and skillful people in our society were those who built the hydrogen bomb and designed those nuclear reactors which today are leaking silent death, in the form of carcinogenic radiation, into the air we breathe and to the grass that feeds the cattle which supply the milk our children drink.

We owe the worst disasters of the previous three decades to those with the highest SAT's, but with the lowest capabilities for thinking through the catastrophic implications of their own behavior.

So I think, while we work hard to broaden the competence and to improve the skills, we must be certain that they are the skills of peace and the competence of compassion; I note that Dean Rosovsky made reference to this this morning and I heartily support what he said.

I would like to close by reminding those who hear us today that 1979 has been designated "The Year of the Child." I don't need to tell you, Senator, that if legislation to empower the kind of literacy program I have suggested passes the House and Senate in the months ahead, Congress will have done much more than to begin the abolition of adult illiteracy.

It will also have helped to redefine the role of childhood and to emancipate young people for the first time from that school-mandated sense of uselessness which is a direct consequence of our archaic definition of those two words, "youth" and "childhood," in the United States.

This isn't in my prepared testimony, but I would like to point out that childhood, itself, is a distinct and relatively new invention.

Prior to the 16th Century, children were treated and dressed and acted pretty much the same as adults, with due allowance made for their small size.

With the invention of childhood as a unique condition, lasting generally until after adolescence, the role of children went into a humiliating change. Little by little, in the 17th and 18th centuries, they came to be regarded as little packages of charming mischief—lovable incorrigible at best, at worst, contributing little, consuming much.

Children were viewed as miniature people, preparatory humans, small problems waiting to be big ones. Children were considered passive, transitional and noncontributive. The notion that kids might have something worth contribution was never in the ball park.

Our views of the child have changed dramatically in the last 20 years.

If, as it seems possible, children shall no longer be regarded—as they have been so long—as passive and ineffectual entities, if we are moving into an era of effective and productive youth, it would be cheerful to believe that children might not only take an active role in the social system, but also that their role might be an ethical one. If they are going to become a force that matters in the world 'a competent force, a literate force, let them also be a moral force, a force that will not leave the world the way we gave it to them.

It must be obvious what I am speaking of is not the rights of children but their potential power. Instead of repeating the tiresome cliche's about the rights of children, why don't we speak about the power of young people to improve the social system we have so beautifully messed up? I wonder if, in the guise of giving greater rights to children, we are not really doing our best to guarantee that children will do nothing unpredictable, or possibly dangerous to the social system we have accepted so long.

In thinking back 10 years, I find this issue poignant. When our children seriously claimed their rights to act upon the dictates of their conscience, for example, in the face of an unjust war, we

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didn't hold conferences and hold meetings to talk about their rights. Instead, as at Kent State, we sent in heavily-armed young men to kill them.

Why do we shoot them, in one decade, when they threaten U.S. power, and hold conferences a decade later once we have killed their dreams?

Fifteen years ago, three kids I knew acted on their conscience and were murdered.

Senator EAGLETON. What impact does that have on reading skills in the first, second and third grades?

Dr. KOZOL. If kids grow up to feel they are learning to read but never have the chance to act upon the things they read, I don't see that there is much motivation to learn to read at all—especially if you are told: You have the right to read, but not the right to act upon the things you read until you are 18, 22, 26.

It seems to me, from the beginning, we destroy all passionate motivation to work hard to develop the power of the word. I don't believe any human being on earth, whether in the third grade or an adult, has a serious reason to want to possess the power and the sophistication of the subtle use of words unless he or she simultaneously feels they will gain thereby some power to make a dent upon the world, even if this is just the little piece of the world in which they live, even if it is simply the ability to transform the conditions of their neighborhood.

That, to me, has always been a starting point. There is a group in Washington called Right to Read. It is a group I respect very much but I think we need to speak about much more than the right to read. We need to speak of the right to read and write well in order to exercise moral action on our own beliefs.

You may wonder what can you do about it, what are you going to do in the third grade? It might seem ludicrous. Even in the third grade, there are nations where children apply what they learn in school to make useful contributions to their societies. Even in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades now, in many schools here in Boston I see students reading hard in the morning, studying early childhood education; and in the afternoon, they go out for pay and work in a day-care center to take care of youngsters 2, 3, 4 and 5 years old.

There is a real motivation for learning how to read. You can't read those difficult textbooks about child education until you have reading skills. That is the sort of thing I mean.

When I was in school—I can use my own example—I remember asking in the seventh grade why I had to study Latin, 6 years of it. "Just wait; it will be useful to you later on. You might become a Latin teacher, or a doctor." I am not a doctor. I am not a Latin teacher. It was largely wasted time, so far as I am concerned.

If there could be some concrete connection between that abstract learning and real action in the world, there would be lots of interesting things that kids could do.

I pointed out that childhood is historically a new invention. It is hard for us to realize this. It is only four centuries old, and it seems to me it is an ideal moment, in The Year of the Child, for us to begin by reinventing the whole idea of childhood. Kids can be a force that matters when they are still young.

I agree it is important to learn basic skills. I am not dreaming of a generation of beautiful but inept people, but rather of people who are a good and competent force, a literate force, but most of all a moral force, a force that will not leave the world the way we gave it to them.

I think, if we put in action the kind of literacy project I would propose, we would achieve two things at once.

First, we would deal with the moral and financial cost and, in terms of foreign policy, the enormous humiliation to our Nation.

Second, simultaneously, we would redefine the meaning of being a kid, because young people 15, 16, 17 years old would be the vanguard, the cutting edge. I know Cuba is not the most popular country in the eyes of the U.S. press today—but in Cuba, according to UNESCO, they were able to reduce the rate of adult illiteracy from 23.6 percent to 3.9 percent in 8 months. They were able to do it primarily with a force which was composed of 100,000 volunteers, 40 percent of whom were younger than 15.

These kids got no more than a 10-day crash course. I am using UNESCO statistics, not Cuban Ministry of Education figures.

The program was carefully watched by UNESCO. UNESCO stated it was the only program of its kind that has ever worked. It is exciting that in 1 year a nation could virtually wipe out adult illiteracy. Whatever people think of the foreign policy, or other aspects of Cuba, I think this is a spectacular achievement. But what is really much more important and far more interesting is that the Cubans released a whole new concept of the potential role of children. I think this is more revolutionary than a military conquest, but not by design.

I could talk at length about the Cuban campaign, but I am sure you would rather ask me some questions.

Senator EAGLETON. I have a couple questions, Dr. Kozol.

I take it that you have no gripe with going back to basics if going back to basics means going back to hard work on essential skills?

Dr. KOZOL. That I absolutely approve of. I think it is about time we did that.

Senator EAGLETON. You are opposed to mindless rote and repetition.

Aren't there certain things we have to learn and know, not because we think they are terribly intriguing or exciting, like a comma comes after the word "however," and the difference between a semicolon and a colon, nothing exciting? Don't we have to have that pounded into our heads?

Dr. KOZOL. I am not sure I agree with the word "pounded."

Senator EAGLETON. Induced?

Dr. KOZOL. I am convinced for certain things you have to repeat. I do it every time that I work in programs such as upward bound, with teenagers.

You explain that a sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point.

Senator EAGLETON. That is one.

Dr. KOZOL. A teacher says one thing today; we may say it again 10 times in a row before a child gets the point. I agree there is intelligent repetition, but I am really uneasy when people speak of "back to basics" as the type of repetitive lessons which are drilled

into people. Students are in a condition of numbness, in an almost anesthetic, passive state. What I call the banking principle of education is making deposits of information to a child in the way you make a deposit in a slot in a bank. That would be dangerous.

I think it would be a disaster if we went through a pendulum swing and sacrificed all of the gains of the last 2 decades.

There are high schools in Boston today, schools which seem to me to have improved by spectacular degrees in the past few years. It is interesting that the national press has disappeared now that some things are working well in Boston.

There are schools in Boston today in which some excellent work is being done with high school students who are literate but still rocky in their skills. Teachers improve their skills, not by drilling them but by sending them to work with kids who are 10 years younger, sending them down to work in grade school. The term they use in Boston is Two-Way Tutoring. It is not a novel idea. It is one that evolved gradually in the past 20 years. It would be a shame if the pendulum were to swing back all of these 20 years.

It is axiomatic that any teenager who works with a little tot maybe 6 years old improves his own skills simultaneously.

When we approach it that way, we don't humiliate a person who might be 18 years old by making him feel that he is pathetic; that he is in a pathetic situation; instead, we say, "You can read pretty well; go help the younger kids."

In the process, the pride and dignity that evolve engenders passionate motivation to learn better himself or herself. This is one of a hundred examples of the kinds of things which, if we are not careful, we will wipe out.

I studied Mr. Copperman's testimony carefully; I read his recent book also. I feel some respect for him, but there is a lot of recklessness in washing out everything we have gained in the past few decades.

In Boston, Madison Park High School is an example of a magnet school, a school of 2,400 students. They do intensive work with skills, but they use hundreds of innovative programs which, if I read Copperman correctly, he would throw out and go back to those awful basic readers.

The titles have barely changed.

When my father was in school it was "Streets and Roads." By the time I was in school, it was "New Streets and Roads." I understand that now there is a radical version: "More Streets and Roads." They are the same streets and the same old roads.

I don't mean Copperman hasn't done some service by pointing up the problem, but I think his suggestions are simplistic.

Senator EAGLETON. You used the statement, "reckless" of racist or class-oriented testing.

I take it you do not mean testing across the board?

Mr. KOZOL. No.

Senator EAGLETON. You are against racist and class-oriented testing, whatever that is?

Dr. KOZOL. There are tests which are racist, sexist, or class oriented. To me that is a problem. I am not against testing. You have to do something to find out where the student stands, especially if you want to break the class into small groups and concen-

trate on those who need more help in one corner of the room, leaving to their own motivation those who can do the lesson faster in another corner of the room.

I don't uphold the reckless belief that we should throw out all kinds of testing. The educational testing service in Princeton, however, worries me very much. There is a strong class bias in these types of tests and they haven't changed a lot in recent years. They are very clearly geared to upper-class, middle-class concerns, upper-class and middle-class vocabulary.

You know that SAT scores have collapsed by 49 points in the past 14 years, something like that. If SAT scores have collapsed that low, that alone doesn't fill me with alarm, because all it means is that we are preparing less elegant Harvard gentlemen to rule the world.

I don't mean to be ungrateful to my university. What does alarm me is the uncontested and possible monopoly now held as things stand by one small group of self-elected people, largely male Anglo-Saxon whites, which have an almost uncontested, productive monopoly on all access, not just higher education and graduate school, but also to any type of equally economic opportunity.

I think that this is the kind of testing which we ought to look at really hard. That is why the drop in SAT scores doesn't bother me so much.

Senator EAGLETON. You used the phrase "senseless competition."

Dean Rosovsky said that we need more competition at the elementary and secondary level; we need more awards, more recognition, more competition.

Do you disagree?

Dr. KOZOL. I deeply disagree with him on that subject. I really admire Dean Rosovsky.

I think that would be the worst possible thing to bring back in education. I have never seen a situation in any classroom where I taught that year in Boston, a week less than a year, actually, 2 years out in the suburbs, and several years helping to run alternative schools; I have never seen a situation where remorseless competition, gold stars and all that kind of corn, any reward system really did anything more than to bring out the worst instincts in potentially decent and mutually supporting young boys and girls.

In the best classrooms that I have observed, whether in wealthy suburbs or, recently in some of the most impressive of the new Boston public schools, in the past few years in the best classrooms where the best results are being found in reading skills, it is not because of their return to that kind of old-fashioned competition.

On the contrary, it is because they do a lot of work in teaching, where the most advanced are asked to work with those who are less advanced.

I hate to use educational jargon.

The term is a heterogeneous group as opposed to a homogeneous group. To me the ideal learning situation is to have four students at the same table, where one is miles ahead of all the others, and where he or she is then in a position to share his skills with the other three.

What do we accomplish when that happens?

First, you help, you literally create a higher and better pupil-teacher ratio; because what you are doing is to make your brighter pupils into a teacher. You really are encouraging in the student a kindliness, compassion and decency. When we do this sort of thing, we are not teaching a red-hot students. No. 1, we are not just teaching that student to read better. We are also teaching that student to have what I call competence of compassion. Maybe that student is held back a little. That means that she won't get into Radcliffe or Vassar or some second-rate college like that. But what a kind and decent human being will she be? That is to me the real point.

It seems to me a generation of people who grow up to learn to help each other in the fourth, fifth, sixth grades are going to be kids that, when they are adults and when they inherit the power we hold today are going to be far more concerned about people serving in Africa than our selfish interests in Africa and are going to be far more concerned about the dangers to life in Pennsylvania than they are for profits of their corporations or the stock they hold in a corporation in Pennsylvania. To me, this is tremendously important.

There is a story that haunts me or which I will summarize what I feel on the subject. And it is one I am sure you remember, as I do.

J. Robert Oppenheimer was in some ways the father of the A-bomb, or one of the key people, a man of great conscience with a tortured face.

At one point when he was working on that project, one of his colleagues who disapproved of it said to him, "Are you aware, Dr. Oppenheimer, of the ethical consequences of what you are doing?"

Even Oppenheimer, noble man that he was, still had been so well compartmentalized by the type of skills teaching that was done in the United States in those good old days, that he couldn't answer the man. He looked at him and said, "I am a physicist. I have no expertise in ethics."

It seems to me any man who is smart enough to make the bomb that can kill 100,000 people in 5 minutes, damn well ought to know something about ethics.

I would suggest that anybody who is educated in physics ought to be required to spend at least 1 year in theology school—or else, perhaps, out in the real world—prior to graduation. That is the point I am trying to make.

Senator EAGLETON. I understand.

Dr. KOZOL. I point out Oppenheimer because he is not the worst, but one of the best, one of the most decent scientists of all.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Dr. Kozol. You have been a very thoughtful and provocative witness and we appreciate your delaying your schedule.

Dr. KOZOL. Thank you.

[The prepared statement of Dr. Kozol follows:]

TESTIMONY OF JONATHAN KOZOL BEFORE

SENATOR THOMAS EAGLETON: APRIL 3, 1979

Although I have been a classroom-teacher for five years, I am more concerned today about those many millions of illiterate adults for whom the changes we may possibly introduce to public schools during the next few yerrs will do no good. They are already defeated, already condemned; and all the clever gadgets and the interesting innovations on this earth will not emancipate these people from the bondage of a life of menial labor, or (more frequently) no work at all.

Twenty per cent of U.S. adults have been estimated to be functional illiterates. The figures are worse for blacks (44%), still higher for those of Spanish surname (56%.) These are plague statistics -- unforgivable in a nation such as ours.

For the illiterate adults of the United States -- and there are, according to Newsweek and The New York Times, approximately 25 million of these men and women -- nothing we do in public school today will matter in the least. It is my own wish not to state again those tedious complaints about the public schools which now are so familiar to us all, but to discuss instead a single, specific and realistic plan by which to deal with the dilemma of that portion of our adult population which cannot decipher warning signals, understand a want-ad or fill out an application for a job.

There are several myths we must destroy if we would like to rid our nation of this problem.

First, we have to get rid of the myth that we don't know the way to teach poor people how to read. The challenge we face is NOT that we don't <u>know</u> but rather -- in terms of government policy at least -- that we don't <u>want</u> to. The figures for adult illiterates are uncomfortably concordant with what our government regards as an acceptable rate of unemployment.

Second, we've got to get past the uselessness of "number games" in trying to calculate the number of adult illiterates in the United States. Some estimate less, most estimate more, than the figure given by Newsweek and The New York Times. It doesn't matter a great deal. The real figures will never be known until we set to work, since most illiterates will not confess their own most crippling need until they are confronted with a loyal and energetic friend-and-teacher who is prepared to help them. We have to rely, therefore, upon an "active census," an "on-going census," rather than a statistic established in advance.

Third, we've got to get rid of the myth that teaching reading is "a mystery" -- complex and intricate -- the property of some

sort of priestly caste. I have been able to develop a solid Sixth Grade level with previously illiterate teen-age students in approximately 60 days. In Brazil, it has been done effectively in less than 40. Cuba required an average of two months per family -- and a total of only nine months for the entire nation.

The reason we've never succeeded in the United States is that we give the issue all the things that never count -- press, promotion, endless conferences and endless talk -- but no serious national commitment, no sense of high priority, no sense that it will lead to something better and different in the lives of adult learners here and now. It does not require a total transformation of our social system. It does require an all-out, unrelenting struggle, conducted on war-footing -- a National Emergency -- the same way we would react to flood, to pestilence, or to invasion. We are not at war with an external enemy. We are at war with ignorance in our own midst.

In order to pull off a triumph of the kind that I propose, and to do so in one year, we have to establish a teacher-learner ratio of one-to-five at most. We are speaking, then, of something like five million teachers. There is no way we can find them in the ranks of those who are now teachers in the public schools. There is only one place we can find them. We will have to issue an appeal to those among our secondary-level and university pupils who are already highly skilled, for a full summer and a fall semester of activist participation. Instead of studying "The Problems of Democracy" for six months, we would give them an opportunity to solve one of those problems.

In order for any of this to happen, we will have to demolish the widespread media-myth of an apathetic student-population. The ethics and the passion of the students of this nation are unbroken. For seven years, however, ever since Richard Nixon told our children it was time to put away their conscience and go back to class, students have lacked a concrete focus for their energies. The literacy struggle offers just that focus.

Questions of logistics, teaching methods and expense inevitably occur:

My own suggestion is that youthful volunteers ought to receive a 10-day crash course in the basics of a strong phonetic method, heightened by addition of specific, charged or -- as some people call them -- "dangerous" words -- words which have proven, in past undertakings, to bear the greatest power of provocation. The words (not "Dick" and "Jane" but "grief" and "pain" and "lease" and "license," "power," "protest" and "police") are those that set the heart and mind alive with possibilities of making something different in the world.

Volunteers would operate in multi-ethnic teams -- black, white, Hispanic -- contrived to fend off any dangers of that missionary manner which so often has subverted the best efforts of young people in the Peace Corps and in the struggles of the 1960's.

So far as expenses are concerned, the struggle to eradicate adult illiteracy could not conceivably cost as much as it is costing us right now to live with the humiliating status quo. It costs us 60 billion dollars in a decade, solely in welfare costs and lowered productivity. It would not cost one-tenth this sum to end the problem forever in one year. It would, moreover, be a one-time cost.

There are, however, a number of other hidden costs of living with the present situation. Industrial accident sky-rockets when men and women cannot read the danger signs, the fire warnings and simple instructions that are a part of every entry-level job today. Insurance premiums for every one of us increase as a direct result. Street-crime also increases with almost direct proportion to adult illiteracy. The highest single locus of adult illiterates is the prison-population. Completely apart from the human price, it costs tax-payers up to $40,000 yearly to keep someone in prison. With inflation, we are speaking of $500,000 in a decade. It becomes apparent now that this is an issue in which every citizen of the U.S. has a direct concern.

Not surprisingly, the print-media have been the first to demonstrate support for the idea of an all-out attack. The reason is clear. Every newly literate adult becomes part of the market for the publishers of books and magazines.

It is hard, indeed, to know who could oppose this plan. Whether we speak of the heads of sophisticated corporations, insurance executives, "law-and-order" people, the press, the publishers, the teachers -- or simply the advocates of any kind of decent social change -- it is one of the few plans which can hardly fail to profit everybody. It is also, perhaps, the sole significant issue on which enlightened business and the ethical students of this nation can agree.

There are ~~several~~ two cautionary points that must be made. First, in regard to the use of charged (or "dangerous") words, the question will be asked if this is "really necessary" or if it is really worth the risk. Is there, perhaps, some danger is the use of "dangerous words" the kind of words described.

Will poor black people, for example, who do not have access to doctors, grow disruptive once they learn to read and write enough to understand the grim statistics for black infant-death in the United States?

Will they be dangerous once they possess the skills to understand the lease they sign in order to inhabit an apartment they cannot abide for payment of a rent which they cannot afford?

Will they be dangerous if they possess a license to drive mediocre cars out of a despairing slum into a neighborhood in which they still are not permitted to obtain a home by mortgage, or to send their kids to school?

Doctor. License. Lease. -

Three dangerous words.

These are the words we ~~must use~~ if we should hope to help to liberate poor people from the crowded prisons of their souls, to give voice to their longings, to give both lease and license to their rage.

"Those who make peaceful revolution impossible," said John F. Kennedy, "make violent revolution inevitable."

The dangerous words to which I have referred are just precisely words and syllables which are most likely to incite the silent victims of an unjust social situation to embark upon a peaceful revolution in the yearning to escape the servitude of silence. If this is a danger which our social system cannot plausibly afford, then we may be forced to ask ourselves if we can possibly afford this social system.

The final cautionary point I want to make has to do with an unfortunate expression: "Back to Basics." Unhappily, what this wording means too often is not simply "back to hard work" on essential skills; it also implies "back to mindless rote and repetition, reckless use of racist or class-oriented testing, back to blind obedience, senseless competition and self-interest."

We've had enough of basic blind obedience: whether it meant marching into Watergate to steal -- or to My Lai, to kill. Sensible emphasis on survival skills must not mean a back-slide to unthinking jingoism, ruthlessness and cruelty of the kind that closed our colleges and schools and killed our children at Kent State. Nor must we allow ourselves to draw a surgical separation between skills and applications, between competence and ethics. Nothing could be more of a disaster than to let this happen once again in the United States.

When we speak of skills, but not of their possible evil applications, I think we should remind ourselves that some of the most competent and skillful men in our society were those who built the Hydrogen bomb and who designed those nuclear reactors which today are leaking silent death, in the form of carcinogenic radiation, to the air we breathe and to the grass that feeds the cattle which supply the milk our children drink.

We owe the worst disasters of the previous three decades to those with the highest S.A.T.'s -- but with the lowest capabilities for thinking through the catastrophic implications of their own behavior.

So I think, while we work hard to broaden the competence and to improve the skills, we must be certain that they are the skills of peace and the competence of compassion.

I would like to close by reminding those who hear our words today that 1979 has been designated "The Year of the Child." If legislation to empower the type of literacy program I propose passes the House and Senate in the months ahead, Congress will have done much more than to begin the abolition of adult illiteracy. It will also have helped to redefine the role of childhood and to emancipate young people, for the first time, from that school-mandated sense of uselessness which is the direct consequence of our archaic definition of those two words, "youth" and "childhood" in the United States.

Childhood -- as a distinct and useless entity -- is a relatively new invention. As we struggle to outgrow what has become an inappropriate and unproductive concept, perhaps we may also empower our young people to perceive of skills and ethics as two matters which must never again be separated in their lives.

In the Year of the Child, we might begin by reinventing the whole idea of childhood. Children might become a force that matters in the world, a competent force, a literate force, -- but, most of all, a moral force, a force that will not leave the world the way we gave it to them.

Thank you, Senator.

[I don't need to tell you, Senator, that

Senator EAGLETON. Our final witness is Mrs. Olive Craigwell, an elementary teacher from the Dennis Haley School.

Mrs. Craigwell was selected Boston's "Teacher of the Year". No program, no matter how well designed, no matter how ingenious, can succeed without the input and enthusiastic support of the classroom teacher.

Mrs. Craigwell, we welcome you and are delighted to have you with us.

STATEMENT OF MRS. OLIVE CRAIGWELL, TEACHER, DENNIS HALEY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. Thank you very much.

Many parents and educators are alarmed by signs that children are not learning and being educated. College students have been found not knowing how to read, write, or do simple math problems. Many high schoolers are working on fourth grade levels.

There is a need for change because educators are supposed to prepare students for the world we live in, for better citizenship, and for better leadership. Today's children are different from yesterday's, having more visual and learning problems. Moreover, they are more hyperactive, more experienced with drugs, drink, and sex; thus requiring more discipline.

Because of this situation, I firmly believe that academic learning can only be increased by going back to basics.

To my mind, it is obvious that this is the only sound approach to educating youngsters torn by peer pressures and the demands of parents and society. Thus, presently, there is little room for those programs that have stressed learning through play. In my opinion, if we went back to basics:

No. 1, children would have self-discipline and respect.

No. 2, children would have a better beginning in phonics.

No. 3, phonics would be mastered, not just taught.

No. 4, definite skills would be taught and mastered according to each grade level in every subject.

No. 5, high school and college students would be better prepared.

No. 6, social studies could play an important part in reading. Monthly studies could have required subject matter to be taught and involve all skills—math, writing, language, spelling, and phonics.

No. 7, more memorization and drill would be necessary for mastery of subject matter.

No. 8, libraries could play a more important role in expanding learning and drill at home by providing records and tapes of stories, fairy tales, classics and Aesop's Fables on loan.

No. 9, math, doing away with some of the newer concepts, could go back to memorization and drill on necessary "basic facts," especially in the primary grades.

Cities should develop minimal standards for all levels and grades in all subjects:

No. 1, definite assessment methods are needed to identify, prescribe, teach, or train to adequately meet the needs of all.

No. 2, promotional standards should be changed.

No. 3, writing skills requirements should be changed for primary students. Only manuscript should be taught for the first three

years—cursive should be for signature only. All application forms and college reports request printing today.

No. 4, specialists should be on call in all districts to help teachers who have specific problems in presenting, teaching or evaluating skills, and to help parents with any problem that the principal cannot handle or advise. Specialists should be able to provide materials to help classroom teachers deal with a special need at that time.

No. 5, definite standards or objectives should be written for every grade or level in all basics taught citywide.

I have defined some of the problems in reading.

No. 1, methods that have been taught—presentations and enjoyments of skills—have been poor.

No. 2, there have been poor applicability approaches.

No. 3, there has been a problem with some school policies.

No. 4, fourth graders are not taught to read in the same manner as students in the lower grades.

No. 5, colleges have failed to send out students who are well versed in phonics and the methods of teaching them.

No. 6, teachers are afraid today to review and drill until there is mastery.

No. 7, a better testing program should be developed—eliminate pictures and words that are not in the modern world.

Some of the tests have shown a bottle of ink and the old-type pen. Flair and ballpoint pens are used today, not the dip pen. Also, there have been pictures in tests; I have particularly noticed one where the child was supposed to identify the picture as an autumn picture; it had a tree and the tree had one leaf falling. To a child, that would not signify autumn.

No. 9, uniform and mandatory citywide objectives are needed.

No. 10, policy of promotions should be changed—mastered minimal standards should be criteria for promotions.

No. 11, daily programs should be set up so that teaching of certain skills could be reinforced throughout a daily lesson in all subjects.

No. 12, the variety of basal reading books used is the downfall of the mobile child. The same basal series, designed by teachers and reading specialists, should be used throughout the city. Each pupil could learn the same skills, same vocabulary, et cetera. The gifted child could go into a supplementary reader earlier than others.

No. 13, poor reading skills have been found because each child has not had the equal opportunity to learn the same skills. The mobile child will be able to begin in the new school where he or she ended up at the previous school.

No. 14, some parents haven't felt that their child was capable of working and learning with certain skills.

What and how can the Federal Government help?

No. 1, give teachers more professional aides. The aides would help with drill, review, and work with the gifted.

No. 2, establish after-school centers where pupils could receive extra drill, review, and expansion of their required learning.

No. 3, develop library classes in schools with specific contracts for the children. These would be fulfilled according to the abilities and levels of pupils.

No. 4, develop learning packets involving all subjects and skills which could be lent to pupils and parents.

No. 5, set aside public buildings for after-school programs for tutoring.

No. 6, pay parents to develop programs and to train other parents to help pupils in after-school programs.

This could be done by reviewing or drilling a pupil in a weak subject by a parent's becoming an ambassador, helping other parents to help their children, and by a parent's introducing what we call emergency words such as "exit," "poison," "detour," "danger," "ladies," and "gentlemen."

No. 7, issue money or materials needed that school budgets can't buy, language masters that should be in every primary room, films, filmstrips, tapes, records, and cassettes.

No. 8, do away with the geocodes for title I so that all children needing this help could have it.

Senator EAGLETON. Mrs. Craigwell, let me compliment you. I have a few questions, but let me very sincerely compliment you. I think your recommendations are without a doubt the most specific that we have received in these hearings to date.

We have had some very fine, able and constructive witnesses. A great deal of their testimony has been, shall I say, sometimes general, sometimes abstract, sometimes theoretical. Your testimony is really from the real world, the classroom teaching world, and you have gone to obvious time and trouble and inconvenience to specify for us a whole series of things that are very important for this committee to have before us to evaluate.

I guess I would ask you questions for 2 hours. Let me ask a few that I have marked as I went along.

On page 2, point No. 14, you say, "Specialists should be on call at all districts to help teachers, etc."

What is the classroom size at your school?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. I have 25.

Senator EAGLETON. How many are there in the second grade?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. There are two second grades. There are 15 and 25, and the teacher that has 25 we split up with a third teacher, who is a specialist.

Senator EAGLETON. With 25 youngsters, how many of those 25, in your opinion, need a substantial amount of individualized and personalized and one-to-one attention?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. I would say 15. They did not come prepared from the first grade, and the reason is some of the children in our building were from other schools and we have a special program; and the children that came from the other schools did not fit. In other words, they had to have reinforcement in certain skills.

Senator EAGLETON. Are you able to devote a significant amount of individualized time with those 15?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. We have tried because we have parents that have come in and helped us. We have also had the 636 proposal that has given us a teacher and helped some of those.

Senator EAGLETON. That is the specialist you mentioned?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Is he or she a reading specialist teacher?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. She is—well, I think she is a typical classroom teacher. She has sort of pointed her program to just reading.

Senator EAGLETON. She comes from time to time and helps you with one-to-one instruction with 15 youngsters that need individualized help?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. This is what we need throughout the schools.

Senator EAGLETON. Does your elementary school have a full-time reading teacher on the premises?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. We have title I. This is the reason why we need the geocodes to be erased, because children that need this cannot go to title I. They have to be in a certain geocode to be entitled to this service

Senator EAGLETON. Skipping down page 2 to number 10, "Policy of promotions should be changed."

What would you do—let's get down to the secondary level—what would you do with a young man or woman who gets to be 16, 17, 18, 19 years of age, who has not mastered certain basic, fundamental skills but has outgrown school?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. I had that happen to me once. It was a 16 year old and he wanted to learn how to drive, but he had no reading skills whatsoever. We sat down and took the reading guide for passing the automotive license and we took the book apart and we broke the language into a primary type language with the result we had other children who were at the same level asking and begging to join this particular class. I think it can be done, but it needs more personnel, and I think one of the things that could be done would be an after-school program since schools can't function on a one-to-one basis.

Senator EAGLETON. When do you think testing should be done in terms of reading and math skills?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. I think it should be done at the beginning of the year, the middle of the year, and the end.

Senator EAGLETON. At elementary grades. And the test results be used for classroom teachers to work with the youngsters to upgrade their reading skills?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. True. I also think it would be profitable to handle a group, put that child in a particular slot with other children, probably working with the same weaknesses.

Senator EAGLETON. What is the best way to improve the teaching ability of teachers?

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. I think we should go back—I may be wrong—in Boston to what we call staff development, wherein we have superior teachers, superior staff, coming in and watching the teacher teach and then afterwards taking that teacher aside, telling the teacher what their weak points are, how they can improve, how they can do certain skills in teaching in a different manner.

That is one of the things that is missing today.

Senator EAGLETON. Again, we want to thank you for the obvious effort that you put forth. As I said, these are the most specific recommendations that we have received to date, and I compliment you for obviously giving a lot of thought and it comes from your heart and mind as a day-to-day classroom teacher and one who is recognized as an outstanding teacher in the Boston school system.

Mrs. CRAIGWELL. Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. That will conclude today's hearings.

The next set of hearings of this committee will be next Monday in Chicago.

[Whereupon, at 1:05 p.m., the subcommittee adjourned.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

MONDAY, APRIL 9, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES,
COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Chicago, Ill.

The subcommittee met at 10:30 a.m., in room 101, Center for Urban Education, 160 West Wendell Street, Senator Thomas F. Eagleton, presiding pro tempore.

Senator EAGLETON. Good morning, ladies and gentlemen. The Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities of the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources is now in session to continue its hearings with respect to the basic skills, specifically, reading, writing, and math.

I have an opening statement but I will defer reading it for the moment and welcome the superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, Dr. Hannon, who, I guess, in turn is going to welcome me. Dr. Hannon.

Dr. HANNON. That's what it is, Senator, and we are delighted to have you here in Chicago. On behalf of the half million children in the Chicago public schools and two and one quarter million children in the State of Illinois, we are delighted that you chose to come to Illinois and listen to people at the grassroots—and you've got a great diversity of opinions, great diversity of individuals who are going to be talking about the needs of our schoolchildren. So, we are delighted to see you, and we will see more of you before the day is over.

The Mayor also wanted to be remembered to you and said that she, too, is delighted to have you in town today. Thank you, Senator.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Dr. Hannon, very much, and we'll be hearing from you a little later on in the hearing.

Dr. HANNON. Yes, you will.

Senator EAGLETON. Thanks a lot.

I have a brief opening statement which I will read and then we'll go down our list of witnesses. Does everyone have a copy of the witnesses? OK.

OPENING STATEMENT BY SENATOR EAGLETON

Senator EAGLETON. Today marks the sixth hearing of the Senate Subcommittee on Education on the topic of basic skills achievement in our Nation's schools.

Opinion is split about whether today's students are getting a better education than they would have received years ago. A CBS

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News poll taken about a year ago indicates that 41 percent of all adults said today's education is about the same as the education they received.

The same poll showed overwhelming approval for some new ideas in education. Seventy-six percent sampled favored going back to basics; 82 percent favored requiring high school students to pass a standard test to graduate.

In line with the overwhelming concern of all adults, and particularly parents, about academic excellence, 36 States have adopted some form of minimal competency testing in the last several years. Here again, controversy arises. A great many educators and some parents fear that minimum competencies might well become accepted maximum competencies, thus further eroding standards of excellence.

Chicago's schools have long been in the forefront of the debate on school achievement. Some 9 years ago, the district began publishing reading scores of students on a school-by-school basis, with what I found to be very interesting results. Some of the poorest schools with the greatest number of educationally disadvantaged children had test scores above national norms, while other nearby schools were as much as 30 percent below the national norm. I know that our witnesses today will discuss other innovations within the system designed to improve academic excellence.

Last year, Congress authorized a new program of basic skills achievement to assist States and local school districts in their efforts to upgrade reading, writing, and computation skills. I am not so naive as to think that a few Federal dollars thrown at a problem will create instant solutions. But I do have hope that, through this new program, the Federal Government can play an important leadership role in improving all levels of education.

To do less, to ignore the massive problems stemming from inabilities to read, write, and think at a level required by our complex society, will place incalculable burdens on our future generations and imprison millions of Americans in a future without hope.

I know that the contributions of today's witnesses will be of material assistance to the committee in its efforts to devise the most effective steps which can be taken to improve academic excellence and to challenge all students to make the most of the education opportunities offered them.

Senator Adlai Stevenson had planned to be with us this morning but was unavoidably detained due to pressing business in Washington. He has asked that his prepared statement be included in the record and that I extend a warm welcome on his behalf to all the witnesses this morning.

[The following was submitted for the record.]

STATEMENT BY ADLAI E. STEVENSON, SUBMITTED TO SUCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND HUMANITIES, SENATE COMMITTEE ON HUMAN RESOURCES, APRIL 9, 1979

Mr. Chairman: I appreciate this opportunity to discuss basic skills instruction in our schools.

There was a time when education at the elementary and secondary level was almost exclusively an education in basic skills -- the three "R's" of reading, writing and arithmetic. In the last three decades, education in this country has undergone major transformations. The launching of Sputnik precipitated a new and welcome expansion of instruction in science and math. Later, in response to the Supreme Court's Brown v. Board of Education decision, the civil rights movement and the War on Poverty, schools became more aware of the need to equalize educational opportunity and to diversify curriculums. The anti-war movement altered the concept of in loco-parentis and changed the authority structure in the schools. Both student rights and the need for relevance in curriculum became the paramount concern of students, school administrators and school boards.

More humane schools, desegrated classes, bilingual education, education for the handicapped, well-stocked libraries and science labs, and new pedagogic method

ologies were the positive outcomes of these changes. But we also lost much along the way. Swept by waves of experimentation, schools neglected traditional courses and adherence to their traditional role of teaching the basic skills. We all know the results too well.

Verbal scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test dropped an average of 49 points from 1963 to 1977. Math scores dropped 32 points during the same period. According to the National Assessment of Education Progress, 13 percent of all 17-year-olds are functionally illiterate. National surveys show that over 65 percent of American parents do not believe that their children are receiving adequate instruction.

As public confidence in schools eroded so did support for local taxes needed to finance schools no longer perceived as teaching our children. This financial stress further eroded the education system. Our children are not being taught and do not know history, geography, government, economics, foreign languages, art, music.

The place to start rebuilding both public confidence and an education system that serves our children and our nation is instruction in the basic

skills of reading, writing, mathematics and oral communication. Congress recognized this by enacting Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act which authorizes the new federal program to assist local school districts and States in improving and expanding basic skills education. The Administration recognized this by recommending $37 million for this program in its Fiscal Year 1980 budget. This hearing and the others in the series of hearings being conducted by the Senate Subcommittee on Education, Art and Humanities will shed light on the most appropriate assistance which the federal government can provide. This is an important task. I am glad it has begun.

Senator EAGLETON. We have six witnesses, the last group being the panel. The first witness is Rev. Jesse Jackson, National President of Operation PUSH.

Reverend Jackson, we welcome you, and would you please come forward and take one of those chairs that will suit your convenience, and we are pleased to have you with us, sir.

Reverend JACKSON. Thank you, very much.

STATEMENT OF REV. JESSE JACKSON, NATIONAL PRESIDENT, OPERATION PUSH

Reverend JACKSON. Senator Eagleton, members of this committee, we wish to thank you for this opportunity to present testimony before the Senate Subcommittee of Education, Arts, and Humanities.

Operation PUSH supports the concept that programmatic expansion of the basic skills program encompassed in legislation proposed by those sponsoring these hearings. The reasons are obvious.

First, of some 3.1 million students graduating from our high schools, at least 346,000 receive their diplomas functionally illiterate. Some 43 percent of the urban graduates strapped with this disability are black, according to studies made by the National Assessment of Educational Progress.

A U.S. Office of Education funded project, adult performance level project, conducted by Dr. Norvell Northcutt, disclosed the following:

> Nearly 35 million adults, almost one-third of the total adult population, have trouble buying life insurance, using credit, shopping wisely, and handling other consumer problems. One in five adults have trouble with occupational knowledge, the basics of finding, getting, holding and advancing on a job.

In this test of adults, 46 percent of Spanish-speaking persons and 44 percent of black persons were found to be functionally incompe-

tent. At least 16 percent of white adults were found to be functionally incompetent in all areas.

Second, accountability and minimal competency have been posed as the most sound and realistic alternatives.

In recent years, disappointment with the quality of education and its products has sometimes resulted in near frenzied adoption of so-called competency or accountability test structures. We would seek to offer a word of caution here. The desire to make schools and teachers accountable for the quality of educational programs was, and is, quite understandable. The issue is: What can be done to compel effective teaching and assure standard competency.

We want competency tests—we want competency tests, but tests must be used to detect and diagnose, not delete and destroy. The functionally immoral will not teach the functionally incompetent or illiterate. Teaching involves at least as much will as skill.

Standardized tests, however are not necessarily good measures of what is taught in school. It would be important to teach the tests themselves, in order to be sensitive to school learning. At the same time, to note deficiencies in these tests is in no way to relieve teachers of their responsibility to teach and to impart the fundamentals as essential to the educational foundation the pupil receives. In other words, we should seek an appropriate balance, taking account of the needs that are present.

Today, public officials, community leaders, and parents are justifiably concerned over the marked decline in nationwide test scores in terms of what this means in overall academic performance, and in the wake of the alarming rates of functional illiteracy surfacing throughout this country.

What is needed is some sensitivity to the balance required to bring about a focus on the requirements of literacy. Interest and high expectations must exist on the part of faculty and administration, and determined monitoring efforts on the part of parents and other surrogate authority figures who relate to pupils in our schools, and this is indispensible to the educational process.

Chicago's public schools provide only a few models for change. Again, these are isolated and unfortunately represent the exception, and not the rule. Chicago's school-home schools and co-plus schools did offer the type of intensive educational work and incorporated parental participation in ways which reflect the type of objectives sought by this committee and others supporting this legislation. I would note here that, we are in basic agreement with one of the premises of the bill—that parental involvement is essential if we are to succeed in attacking the problems which call attention to the need for this legislation.

The problem here, of course, is that there are so few programs modeled on that of the co-plus pilot that they are almost unknown.

Within the access to excellence program there is a component identified as the "Basic Skills Centers." Although this is one of the most attractive programs of any offered under "access", fewer than 2 percent of the student body is projected for enrollment in the program this year. The last figures available to us reveal some 2,131 pupils enrolled. No school, including those with 90 percent or more minority pupils, reported over 134 pupils in the Basic Skills Centers, of the more than 514,000 students in the public schools in

the city. The Chicago Urban League has noted that fewer than 100 of Chicago's more than 643-plus schools report student bodies the majority of whom are reading at, or above, grade level. Again, the Chicago Reporter magazine made the following disclosures concerning reading levels in Chicago public schools:

1. Less than five percent of predominantly Black schools had high reading scores.
2. 46.6 percent of Black schools had far below normal "low reading scores."
3. 99 percent of poverty schools where such occurred were Black, while 73 percent of non-poverty schools where 78 percent of the student body had middle-to-high scores, were white.
4. Black pupils were found to receive an average of 7.3 percent less in per-capita expenditures than whites. There were, too, a direct correlation between low per-capita expenditures and performance. Some 53 percent of the schools with 10 percent fourth-grade scores also suffered low per-pupil expenditures.

Congressional initiatives in this critical area are welcomed and essential. We are losing too many Americans to dependency and crime to afford any additional time without basic skills and literacy programs. A June 1977 article in The Federationist notes that there are 54.3 million Americans, aged 16 and over, who are not in school and who do not possess a high school diploma. Previous Federal funding for basic adult education at $71.5 million did little to address the problems surfaced in such massive educational deficiencies among citizens of the leading nation.

Senators, we must note that one of the gravest handicaps to quality education in our public schools has been persistent patterns of racial and economic segregation. Nationwide, at least 4.9 million black and brown children—including 51 percent of the black and brown children attending inner city schools—are, 25 years after *Brown* vs. *The Board of Education*, still attending segregated schools. The Chicago school system looms large as an example of the perversity and miseducation present in segregated school systems.

The present attempts to separate quality education and desegregation as, somehow, two separate and distinct processes, overlooks the historic reality that segregation represents in policy and practice the enforcement of the concept that certain students wear a badge of inferiority. Thus, resources are not even directed toward remedying such problems as those of arrearages in grade level performance, or basic lack of competency, with respect to the essential skills required to be academically—yes, economically—proficient.

I repeat, what the courts have told us with *Brown* and since *Brown*, "Separate but equal," is a myth; that when students are separate, facilities and other opportunities are inherently unequal and the stigma of inferiority is imposed upon one group. This is to say that, it is necessary for black or brown students to sit next to whites for them to learn. It is simply to say that, "segregation is a political tool necessarily involving choices on the distribution of resources which invariably mean that the black and brown children receive least."

Senator Eagleton, with all due respect, this accounts for our opposition to the Eagleton-Biden amendment. For we believe that boards of education in the fixation upon blacks, browns, budgets and busing overlook their responsibility to exercise every available

option to assure that all children receive the highest quality of education.

Indeed, the Supreme Court pointed out the danger of isolation and its consequent limitation of educational and social options as long ago as the decision *Sweatt* v. *Painter*, the case which opened the University of Texas College of Law to blacks nearly 31 years ago. Moreover, we are certain that it is not the bus, it is us. Busing has been employed the better part of 60 years as the paramount means of transportation for public school students and less than 7 percent of it is now directed to correcting the disparities created by race.

It is our contention, that for education to take place, opportunity, motivation, atmosphere, and responsibility must be present. Opportunity is the linch-pin in this process. For devoid of opportunity, education, at best, is by chance and happenstance.

What is offered here is a program of opportunity in the basic skills. We support it and shall be happy to work for its enactment, both here and in Washington where the vote will be taken.

Literacy cannot be taken for granted in this Nation. We need literacy crusades. Ignorance ranks at the bottom of any ideological or political system, thus we can ill afford its perpetuation. Our own PUSH for excellence program is a quest for removing the veil which not only clouds the mind, but also suffocates aspirations. Restoration of discipline and the revitalization of public education represents the only means of reaching that 4 percent of the total population the Harris Organization identified as illiterate; or, that 11 percent of those with high school education; or, to providing remedial assistance to the 40–50 percent of urban school children now performing below grade level, whose futures are already in jeopardy.

For, finally, it is certain that if we are to survive as a nation, we can ill afford an American "half illiterate or even part illiterate and part free."

Thank you, very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, very much, Dr. Jackson, for a very excellent statement, and for purposes of emphasis I will make a couple of comments on parts of your statement.

Not to dwell on the question of busing, although that can be incidental to our hearings, I guess, the primary thrust of our hearings are to the basic skills. If I understand the statistics in the Chicago Public School System at the present time, I think the system is 64-percent black, 16-percent Hispanic, and 20-percent white caucasian.

Now, since the Supreme Court's decision in the *Detroit* case, and in decisions that have come down since *Detroit*, the Court has ruled as a matter of document that there cannot be any busing under the Equal Protection Clause between an urban school district and a suburban school district if the suburban school district has committed no overt act of segregation against the urban district, that is, up until *Detroit* the theory was evolving that there could be busing between urban and suburban America. Indeed, the trial judge in the *Detroit* case ordered the consolidation of 50 school districts in the Greater Detroit area and tendered a plan that would have a very significant amount of busing among these 50 school districts.

It was that plan that the Court rejected and said was not encompassed within *Brown*. I just state that as a summary of what the Court held.

Now, let me ask you this question. If the Court continues to adhere to that doctrine, and I see no change in the Court. In fact, recent hand downs in *Dayton, Milwaukee, Columbus* and other cases, indicate that the Court is very much adhering to the *Detroit* doctrine, and if busing is confined solely to within the confines of the inner-city school district, with the racial statistics that I have just described—64-percent black, 16-percent Hispanic, 20-percent white caucasian—can there be meaningful integration within the confines of the Chicago Public School System?

Reverend JACKSON. Well, it would be difficult, but it can improve. In this city, if schools to be built were to be built in different places; if the boundaries changes, and if the feeder schools were different, we could significantly alter it as it presently is. The fundamental question, Senator, is how great is our quest for one nati[illegible]asic white leadership has prevailed with the notion that cult[illegible]diversity is to the disadvantage of white children, and since we are a Nation that is predominantly white, that point of view is prevailing. It is so radically inconsistent with an international policy that is now culturally diverse, where we gain gratification and benefit from relating to a billion Chinese, on African policy or Russian policy; to see the futility in international isolationism, and then develop devious means for projecting domestic isolationism is kind of politically expedient, but ultimately our children are damaged by it.

If a white child can read and write and count, but is socially naive, unable to cope, unable to relate to children who are nonwhite, or who are poor, or who speak Spanish, that child fundamentally has some skill out of any social context and thus, is uneducated

So, I argue that perhaps we are running from desegregation, which is a legal term, but perhaps we should run to cultural diversity. I think it would be the ultimate in arrogance for whites to assume that they stand something to lose in cultural diversity. All of us gain in cultural diversity.

Senator EAGLETON. One of the clarifying points, for the record, because I sort of spelled out what *Detroit* held, I'll spell out what Eagleton-Biden sets forth in statutory form. Eagleton-Biden has no affect whatsoever on any court-ordered busing. My opinion is that Congress cannot, by statute, interfere with the jurisdiction of courts to enforce the equal protection clause of the Constitution. So, in no way does Eagleton-Biden affect a Federal district court in what it may or may not order in Boston or in any other city for that matter. All Eagleton-Biden says is that HEW cannot march into a school system, as it did in Kansas City—and that's what gave rise to Eagleton-Biden—and take a school district that was 72-percent black, and without a hearing, or any judicial finding whatsoever, order under the penalty of withdrawal of all Federal moneys of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and other Federal aid programs, unless every school—every school—in the city of Kansas City was roughly 70-percent black and 30-percent

white. That's what HEW sought to do, and I thought that that was heavyhanded, oppressive and unrealistic.

It's my conviction, Reverend Jackson, that if they had gone forward with that order, that HEW nonjudicial order, then the Kansas City School System within 1 or 2 years would have been 90-percent black and 10-percent white. I think there would have been massive white flight and the record bears that out in the Prince George's County, Md. situation and other school districts where white flight has been tracked. I felt that such an order was self-defeating. That's what gave rise to this.

Reverend JACKSON. The result has been, of course, to take the problem from HEW and shift it to the Justice Department. The Justice Department cannot get extra funding for enough lawyers, and the effect has been to kill all power in the direction of segregation. We find ourselves now 25 years later not merely with segregated schools, but segregated school systems.

My appeal, ultimately, is that leadership move beyond the quagmire of judicial and legislative cement, and begin to deal creatively with the advantages of our children learning to live together in their formative years. I think that is the ultimate challenge that leadership must come forward with.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, let me go through some of your testimony here, back on the main thrust of the hearing—reading, writing, mathematics, and basic skills.

I am very much impressed with your statement that says, "* * * the frenzied adoption of so-called competency or accountability test structures," and there has been a great deal of frenzy in this area, I agree.

And, I agree with the statement that you inserted here, "We want competency tests, but tests must be used to detect and diagnose, not to delete and destroy."

I think that is an excellent statement and I'll tell my report writer here that I want that in the report; it's better than language we could have come up with, because I agree with it. If the purpose of the testing is merely at the end of 12 grades to prove to somebody or other that a given student's educational career has been a total failure, and to say that when that young man or young woman is 17 or 18 or whatever years of age, he or she has been in our school 12 years—maybe with kindergarten 13—and we have failed, because he or she is reading at a third-grade level or fourth-grade level.

If that's all the testing is designed to do is to embarrass and humiliate, then testing is, in that respect, absolutely counterproductive.

Conversely, if testing is done to truly evaluate Johnny or Mary, and then to help Johnny or Mary improve or enhance their skills, then testing is, I think, very usable. Now, having said that, have you, in your own mind, Reverend Jackson, decided when you think testing should begin in the educational process?

Reverend JACKSON. Actually, it should begin in the first grade. You know we take physicals at that time, physical tests, because those physical tests determine even at that point if the child's eyes are strong enough to read, if the child's ears are sensitive enough to hear, if the child's body is strong enough to stay in school 5 or 6

hours, and to enhance that, even at that level, we put in nutritional programs to assure the capacity at that level. So, at the very earliest level we must take tests not only to diagnose, but to take tests to get children used to taking tests, because testing is a phenomenon all by itself.

In other words, we should not come up in the 11th grade talking about the child's reading in the 7th-grade level. We should know in the eighth grade the child's reading in the seventh-grade level, and then marry the curriculum with the test results. Often now the test is on AM and the curriculum is on FM, so no matter what the tests reveal, there is no adjustment, no flexibility in the curriculum adjustment. And that makes a lot of people distrust the motives for the test.

Case in point: A lot of people don't want to take competency tests, not because they don't want competency but they are afraid of the motives and the agenda of the tester and the interpreter. No one objects to going to a doctor and taking a test; no one wants to go to a doctor and get a shot first and a test second, they want the test first. Because the assumption is that once the doctor does the diagnosis, that then the prescription will reflect the test results, and you then have the patience to relate until you get well. But that is not happening in our schools and that is what the reaction is all about.

So, we want the tests to be given and then we want to go beyond that, beyond just giving tests. And we must accept the fact sooner or later—hopefully sooner—that the school is in isolation and cannot be the dumping ground for all of the maladies of the culture.

All of the people who impact on children's minds are indeed their educators, which means that we're suffering in part from mass media addiction. This is the first generation where, by age 15, we've seen 18,000 hours of TV and listened to more radio than that; compared to 11,000 hours of school and less than 3,000 hours of church. Mass media addiction up to 5 hours a night on the national level is tremendous diversion. Then, massive parental detachment is also a crippling effect upon education, and then, of course, morally degenerate values.

When you get trapped with a student generation inclined toward using its primary energies to lower liquor drinking age, and to glorify drugs, and to equate shackups with marriages—the degenerate values, the parental detachment, and the media diversion serve as tremendous impediments to the educational process.

And that is why the parental notion in here cannot be seen as just a kind of a figure of speech. Parents are absolutely essential to the process of redirecting the course of American education.

Senator EAGLETON. I agree with every word you have uttered; I think it is a very, very good summary.

We have testimony in the record thus far, and I will probably accumulate further testimony, and these are from reading experts, designers of reading skill programs and what have you, that if a youngster has a serious reading deficiency—and I'm not just talking about dyslexia; put aside a dyslexia component—but difficulty with reading, then unless that is worked on very early on, by the fourth-grade, the chances rapidly diminish as you go up the higher

grades. Not that work cannot be done at the higher grades; it gets increasingly more difficult, say the experts, past the fourth-grade level, and so I fully agree that testing ought to be done at the first grade, at the second grade, and not again just have a bunch of scores on the paper, but to work with that youngster if it appears in that early testing that that youngster needs some help.

Do we have anybody here from the Chicago Public Schools? What is a typical classroom size in the Chicago Public Schools at the elementary level?

A VOICE. Thirty in the primary and 32 in the high school.

Senator EAGLETON. Thirty in the primary.

Now, just hypothetically, let's take a typical elementary school with 30 youngsters in the classroom. Let's assume that 15 of those students have a reading deficiency. Let's assume 15 are reading at or above where they should be at their given grade level. Right off the bat you see the monumental task that that classroom teacher has in trying to give individual one-on-one or one-on-two attention to 15 students who need a lot of individualized help.

Reverend JACKSON. You see, Senator, the reason why I am concerned that our whole concept of that teaching process changes, and I know that it will almost take extreme future shock for us to go beyond the Little Red Schoolhouse as the primary source of reading.

I have a 3-year-old child that can spell and there's no evidence that she is any special kind of genius; but at age 3, she can spell relief, R-o-l-a-i-d-s, because she has been taught by television. The technique has changed and the repetition is as such until she can spell relief, R-o-l-a-i-d-s. And my point is, that is a new source of competition for the minds of our children with educators, and it's winning.

So, how do we incorporate that medium as a component of the educational process, cooperating as opposed to competing. I contend that simply whipping teachers to death will not radically increase the literacy level unless we deal with the forces that deal with that process. So that when some educators panic and say, well, the solution is, if you can't read, put them out. Well, if you put them out of school, you put them in jail, and schools at their worst are better than jails at their best. So that's not an answer.

Some other people panic and say, well, there's something wrong with their minds, they're poor, they got something wrong with their genes; it's not their genes, it's their gender. We do best what we do most, fundamentally, and we're not doing much reading and writing and counting and therefore we're not achieving much at it.

Senator EAGLETON. On the question of media, you said "mass media addiction," and indeed it is that. You quoted how many hundreds of thousands of hours that a youngster has viewed by the time he or she is in the eighth grade or graduating—it's staggering, the number of hours they're glued to the tube.

We had two very interesting witnesses back to back one day. We had Dr. Giamatti, the new, young president of Yale University, whose basic professional area was literature and writing. And the very next witness was Willard Wirtz, former Secretary of Labor under President Johnson but then later Chairman of the task force or committee that tried to inquire into why the SAT scores have

gone down since the mid-1960's and what have you. They split on this question of television. I was surprised. Dr. Giamatti said putting too much blame on television is a copout. It's a convenient excuse, he said, to blame it on television addiction. Wirtz, the very next witness, said, well, far be it from me to say I'm a greater expert than the president of Yale, but our study showed that television was indeed a very negative—a negative—force in the intellectual developmental process.

I must say as a layman, and having heard other testimony at these hearings, I very much lean toward the Wirtz point of view, and I take it, to your point of view.

Reverend JACKSON. I don't think we should use it as a copout, but in traveling to schools around the country, we often ask students their basketball practice schedule, or football. In St. Louis last week students said that they practice basketball from 2:30 to 6, 3½ hours a day, without radio or television or telephone or social visitation—3½ hours a day.

As a result of that kind of intensity they develop their motor skills. If they spent a comparable amount of time developing their cognitive skills, they would be comparable in their development. But they concede the fact that they go from intense motor skill development to relaxation and then sleep and then the next day.

So that our children—black, brown, and white; urban, suburban—are not so dumb that if they study they will not learn. On the other hand, they're not so ingenious that they will learn unless they study. There must be an appreciation of both sides of the dialectic—opportunity and effort. And there is a crisis in effort as well as a crisis in opportunity.

Senator EAGLETON. In your statement you say, and I agree, that parental involvement is essential. What experience have you had through PUSH insofar as summoning parental involvement in any of these matters?

Reverend Jackson. Well, my first finding was that the schools around the country say they want parental involvement but they really don't and, at best, their reaching out for parents is perfunctory, because they see parents as a threat, as opposed to therapy. But we found that we have to go outside the school system to mobilize parents, even to make them feel secure.

We have found that churches have been a great source of parent mobilization. For example, in your district in Kansas City, Central High, we've gone from about 30 parents to almost 500 parents picking up their children's report cards four times a year. When parents begin to show up en masse, teacher accountability is inherent in their very presence. When parents show up, hats and radios kind of come off. As the parents' participation has increased, we have found that discipline has become a very secondary problem because they represent the very primary moral and legal authority over children's lives.

So we've had to appeal basically to churches and to mass media to help us mobilize parents en masse, and in so doing we see parents as the foundation of the educational system and not the bottom—because the bottom is where you end up, and the foundation is where you start from. That very perspective will have a lot to do with whether or not we go after parents en masse or whether

or not the PTA essentially remains a group of 30 or 40 parents, who at best are struggling at really insurmountable odds.

Senator EAGLETON. I ask this for the record; I'm not necessarily endorsing it; I just am clarifying that for the record of you as I have asked of several other witnesses.

As you know in other professions there are qualifying exams before you can enter the profession, bar exam, I'm a lawyer—I wouldn't want to take the bar exam today, I took it once—medical exams before you're qualified; would you recommend some kind of qualifying examination for teaching before you could enter the profession?

Reverend JACKSON. No doubt in my mind; there must be a qualifying examination, but it must be objective as well as attitudinal, because you can be high on skill and low on will, and still not impart any information.

Our experience has been that great teachers are more characterized by service and sacrifice and sensitivity than they are just by IQ. There must be some real appreciation of a balance between IQ education and character education, because in many instances we now find that teachers who score high on tests, many of them are using their power to demand increased salary while operating over decreased productivity. Many of them are fighting through their contracts to not have to relate to parents; they call that social service. Many of them are fighting to not have to come to PTA meetings at night and they expect to live—some of them—in this rather perverted correlation of increased wages and expectations and decreased productivity, and obviously at some point the fabric is going to tear.

So we do need teachers to take objective tests, but there must be a real commitment to subjective tests, particularly during this transition period wherein, and I quote, "If a black child when disciplined by a white teacher can call that discipline 'racism,' and go home and gain sanctuary, that child will be satisfied, but will not learn. If a white child can ignore a black teacher and can say that, well, you know, black teachers can't teach anyhow, and can go home and gain sanctuary, that child will not learn." So that the judge will have gotten his balance of races and faces and he can go on to the next great issue, but unless that is a spiritual factor and a moral foundation, then we will be presiding over well budgeted but decaying school systems, unless we deal with the factor of moral authority and character as well as basic objective skills.

Senator EAGLETON. I will just make a comment, because you have testified very well to it, again that I support your view wherein you say on page 5, "Previous Federal funding for basic adult education at $71.5 million did little to address the problems surfaced in such massive educational deficiencies among citizens of the leading Nation."

The Federal Government has a bad habit, we have many bad habits, but one of our grievous bad habits, I guess, is that we pass grandiose authorizing programs that sound good in the title of the program; we always have the word reform in it, but the Reform of Education Act or the Reform of Reading Act, and we have a lot of noble thoughts that go into these programs that we authorize, and they read very well in a book, but then when we get around to the

funding level of the program in order to try to implement it, to get some remedial reading teachers out in the field, and so forth, we fund it at such minuscule levels so as to destroy the program before it starts.

We had a program in the Federal laws called right to read. Every youngster has the right to read—a catchy phrase. It was a marvelous public relations phrase and we funded it—this was to enhance the reading skills of all the country's youngsters—first year funding $12 million, then 16 or so and we finally peaked out at $20 million. Well, my Lord, without knowing terribly much about the Chicago public schools system, I think we could have spent $20 million right here and in terms of remedial reading teachers——

Reverend JACKSON. On one side of town.

Senator EAGLETON. On one side of town and still not really have probed it in depth, so it's an act of deception, really, what Congress engages in holding out that we are going to do something. We try to make the world a little bit better, but we kill the noble words before they're even off the printing press by saying, well, we'll put a pittance into this program and so it will be just a nominal cosmetic program, not really substantive.

Well, I could go on, Reverend Jackson, at great length. I think your testimony was excellent; I think it makes a significant contribution to our hearings, and we are delighted to have had you with us. Thank you.

Reverend JACKSON. Thank you, very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Roger Farr, vice president of the International Reading Association.

Doctor, we welcome you. You may proceed.

STATEMENT OF DR. ROGER FARR, VICE PRESIDENT, INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

Doctor FARR. Thank you. Because I am perhaps not so well known, I started out my testimony by giving a little bit of my background.

Mr. Chairman, I appreciate the opportunity to testify before this subcommittee. My entire career has been in education. I have been an elementary teacher, a high school English teacher, and a university professor. I have always been deeply interested in reading achievement and reading instruction and have been a school reading consultant and director of two reading clinics. For the past 15 years, my research efforts have focused on literacy, measurement, and reading achievement trends.

I am presently director of the Henry Lester Smith Research Center and the Reading Research Center at the Indiana University School of Education. I have also been associate dean for research and research training at Indiana University. For the past 12 years, I have been coeditor of the Reading Research Quarterly, which is one of the most widely circulated research journals in the field of education.

This year I am vice president of the International Reading Association, which has over 65,000 members in 79 countries. Next year I will serve as president of the Association, which includes teacher

educators, classroom teachers, researchers, education students, and parents interested in reading and related fields.

I am the author of "Reading: What Can Be Measured?," the Iowa Silent Reading Tests, and the reading section of the Metropolitan Achievement Tests. I am coauthor of a new elementary reading methods text entitled "Teaching a Child To Read," and of the Laidlaw basal reading series.

During these experiences, I have been involved in three projects which I believe are so pertinent to the investigation of this subcommittee that I would like to call specific attention to them. I am coauthor of a study which compiled and reviewed all the literature available on reading achievement in the United States up to its publication in 1974. It is entitled "Reading Achievement in the United States: Then and Now." In addition, I am coauthor of a study which compared the reading achievement of Indiana 6th and 10th graders in 1976 to that of those from 1944-45. "Then and Now: Reading Achievement in Indiana—1944-45 and 1976"—was published in 1978. I submit copies of these two studies to the subcommittee as supporting data for my testimony today. Also, as the author of two national reading tests, I have studied and reviewed the extensive data from their tryouts and standardization.

Today I would like to present eight conclusions that my research and experience recommend about the status of reading achievement in this country. Then I will discuss two major issues that support and help explain the conclusions. The first of these issues concerns extant studies which have been relatively overlooked in the national debate about reading achievement and which contradict the notion that today's students do not read as well as those from the past. The second issue tends to explain how—without ready access to such data—the country has come to believe that children are not learning to read. This national belief of what I consider to be a myth is partially based on misuse and misinterpretation of data that is used to support that negative notion. Finally, I would like to make some recommendations for Federal involvement in the development of trends data and of more effective reading education.

Here, then, are my conclusions about the status of reading in the United States:

One, if basic literacy is defined as the ability to read at a certain minimal level—for example, at a second-grade level—then close to 100 percent of the citizens of the United States are literate. Persons who cannot read at this minimal level are those who are hindered by physiological and psychological handicaps.

Two, America is a nation of readers.

Three, literacy demands have consistently increased in America. The requirements for reading in order to function successfully in society generally and on the job are definitely higher now than they have been in the past.

Four, the trend has been for a consistent increase in reading achievement at all grade levels since the time that test data information in the United States was first recorded.

Five, the fluctuations in reading achievement data that have been observed can be traced to such factors as changing promotion policies of schools, the move toward open enrollment policies, an

increased emphasis on encouraging minority populations to seek more education, and a definite reduction in school dropouts. While these fluctuations may have made it seem that a change in reading achievement was occurring, what was occurring, in fact, was a change in the composition of the population taking the tests.

Six, the measured increases in reading achievement throughout the Nation have been most pronounced at the youngest age levels. This is perhaps due to parental attitudes about education, the influence of television, and selected preschool and primary programs.

Seven, the most serious reading problems are directly related to low socioeconomic status.

Eight, there may be a growing trend to overemphasize the teaching of isolated reading skills at the loss of the development of higher levels of comprehension.

There are important studies which help explain and contribute support to my conclusions and I will briefly describe several of these:

One, one of the most carefully conducted studies indicates conclusively that reading ability has not deteriorated during the 1970's. This extensive study of reading ability in the United States was conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. This was the first major attempt to gather information on a nationwide basis about the learning trends of American schoolchildren and adults. A random sample of 63,000 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds were tested in 1971 and again in 1975 on literal and inferential comprehension and on reference skills.

The 9-year-olds in 1975 read significantly better on all three measures than did 9-year-olds 4 years earlier, and black 9-year-olds improved even more dramatically than did that age group as a whole. There was little change over the 4-year period in the reading ability of the 13- and 17-year-olds, although both groups showed a slight improvement in literal comprehension. The 17-year-olds also improved on the reference skill items

To measure functional literacy skills, the National Assessment of Educational Progress test for 17-year-olds incorporated items which represented typical printed formats encountered in today's society and which called for typical reading behaviors. The representative sample of 17-year-old students in the Nation who were administered this test showed an average gain of over 2 percentage points between 1971 and 1975. Black students exhibited an even greater gain of 5 percentage points.

Two, the 1976 Indiana study shows that today's children read at least as well as and probably better than students their age 30 years ago. This study compared the reading achievement of 6th and 10th graders in the State in 1944–45 to that of children in the same grades in 1976 by testing thousands of students. The same edition of the Iowa Silent Reading Tests was administered both times. When the grade equivalent scores only are considered, the students in 1976 scored about the same overall as they did 30 years earlier. However, the 1944–45 6th grade students were found to be approximately 10 months older than their 1976 counterparts; and the 1944–45 10th graders were found to be 14 months older than the 1976 10th graders. When the scores were adjusted for these age

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differences, the 1976 6th graders outscored their earlier counterparts significantly on every subskill measured and on total score. The adjusted scores of the 1976 10th graders were also significantly higher than those of the 1944-45 students on all subtests except one. Both sophomore groups performed the same on the paragraph comprehension test. The major conclusion of the Indiana study was that the reading achievements of the 1976 students were markedly improved over those of the 1944-45 students when the age differences are taken into consideration.

Three, contrary to popular opinion, American students compare quite favorably to students from other countries throughout the world. The results of a 1977 study showed the top 9 percent of the 12th graders in the United States performed better on a test of reading comprehension than did comparable students elsewhere. That is, they outperformed students in their last year of secondary school in 15 other countries.

One may ask, "Only 9 percent?" but there are important factors that must be considered when cross-cultural comparisons are made. For example, the U.S. advocates an educational program that is available to everyone—unlike many other countries where it is determined very early in a student's educational life whether he or she is qualified to attend secondary school at all. Over 75 percent of the 12th grade population in the United States was enrolled in school in 1977, while the other 14 countries had a median percentage enrollment of 17 percent; thus, that 9 percent who outperformed their counterparts from other countries achieves significance.

Four, sixth graders in one Ohio community are also reading better than the students in the past. In a study there, a paragraph comprehension test that had been administered to 6th graders in 1917 was given to 183 6th graders in 1978. When the test results were compared, the 1978 students performed significantly better than the 1917 students in both literal and inferential comprehension.

Five, even the critics of reading achievement acknowledge the increase in scores on reading tests for children from the lower elementary grades. Let me cite two studies which exemplify this. Information is available from the testing program in Iowa, where the Iowa tests of basic skills have been used in most school systems since the 1940's. When students in 1940 and 1965 were compared, the reading test performances of the students in 1965 were dramatically better. Since 1965, the median performance in reading for Iowa third graders has continued to rise. In fact, the median third grade reading performance in 1977 was about 6 months higher than the median 22 years later. This indicates that the children in the primary grades in Iowa are learning to read just as well—even better—than those in the past.

The comprehension tests of basic skills, used widely throughout the Nation, also provide positive information about reading in the primary grades. The norm data from 1968 and 1973 for grades 2, 3, and 4 show small increases in the reading achievement scores. These increases were also apparent for grades 2 and 4 on the language and mathematics subtests and for grade 3 on the mathematics subtest.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me interject there. I had other questions earlier on. Doesn't that paragraph also tell us something by silence, that is, the conclusion of the comprehensive test of basic skills that reading levels have enhanced, in grades 1 through 4, but of the statistics, at least, aren't there experts that can conclude that after grade 4 there is a decline?

Dr. FARR. Yes; as a matter of fact this point deals with the increase at the lower grade level, and I do have data to deal with the upper grade level as well. Maybe if we could get back to that in greater perspective in a moment.

Six, our personal observation should suggest that books, magazines and other published materials are more available in the United States today than in any society man has known. Titles are stocked and displayed by the hundreds in drug stores and supermarkets, as well as in bookstores. A study conducted for the Book Industry Study Group Inc. concludes that "Americans can accurately be described as a nation of readers." A representative sample of the U.S. population age 16 and over were studied to determine their bookbuying and reading habits and motivations. According to the survey, 55 percent of the population had read at least one book in the 6 months preceding the study; and these people also read magazines and/or newspapers. Of these book readers, 45 percent had read more than 10 books during that period. Another 39 percent of the total population sampled read magazines and newspapers rather than books. Only 6 percent read nothing.

Senator EAGLETON. Are you greatly comforted that according to that survey, 55 percent of the population had read at least one book in the 6 months preceding the study? Are you saying "halleluiah?"

Dr. FARR. Not at all. I'd be happy to answer these questions but I don't know if it's appropriate for me to answer those as we go along, because I sure want to get to my other points.

Senator EAGLETON. All right, I'll hold off.

Dr. FARR. But I don't, by any means—say "halleluiah"—I could give you a general gist of my beliefs and biases. Perhaps that would help put this in perspective.

I believe that we are coming at—a minimum competency assessment is one of the results—we are coming at education with a very negative point of view. Education, in my biased opinion, has improved dramatically and is continuing to improve. We have though a tremendous amount to do. We haven't even touched some problems, but I would like to—rather than reading the newspaper every day about, and I use the quote, "we're going to hell in a hand basket"—to say we have done a good job, but we have a tremendous amount left to do.

I would like to get a positive perspective to build on rather than a negative perspective. I think those who are sometimes after the development of minimum competency testing and other kinds of programs for their own bandwagon, tend to start out with why Johnny can't read today. Well, doggone it all, he can read better today than in the past, but we still have a lot to do. That's my perspective.

Senator EAGLETON. You were in the middle of page 4.

Dr. FARR. Thank you.

A review of another set of studies endorses the claim that we are a nation of readers. Robert A. Ellis studied readership surveys from the early 1970's to determine the state of American reading habits and skills. This study found that over 90 percent of Americans read some type of English language publication—newspaper, magazine, or book—with some frequency. The 5 percent who were described in the studies as nonreaders were usually characterized as being visually handicapped or readers of foreign languages.

Examination of the survey data indicates that reading habits are established very early in life. Two major influences are parents' habits and interests and successful experiences in the beginning school years. Children whose parents read to them were found to be better readers and exhibited a greater interest in books than children whose parents did not read to them; children who experienced success during their first few years in school developed into readers.

Seven, an analysis of the data collected in several surveys on functional literacy, including the Harris studies, does not support claims that schools of today are less effective than the schools of yesterday. This 1978 analysis by Fisher for the National Institute of Education concluded that our schools—elementary and secondary—are more effective than ever in increasing literacy throughout the United States. A 1978 review of national census literacy data, shows how this uneven information clearly indicates that we have virtually eliminated illiteracy in this country.

[The following information was supplied for the record:]

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Dr. FARR. The second great issue I would discuss deals with the inappropriateness and misuse of data which is used to argue that our children today do not read as well as those in the past. The kinds of data I have been summarizing have not been widely disseminated, partially because some elements of our mass media—particularly the electronic media—have not seen fit to incorporate it when reporting on or analyzing national literacy issues. Part of this problem arises because the most appropriate data—or the researchers who have collected or created it—have not had the audience appeal of numerous critics of education with their doomsday data.

I believe it is important that this subcommittee understand how the misuse of data—particularly test scores—relates to what the public believes about reading achievement.

Among the data sources that have been used to launch national panic about reading education are the score declines noted on the Scholastic Achievement Tests from the mid-1960's up until recent years, when they leveled off. These declines are a serious matter and have been the subject of extensive study. The commission headed by Willard Wirtz noted that our national commitment to equal opportunity in education resulted in an increasingly broader range of abilities among the high school seniors and juniors taking the test over the years that the scores dropped. The Wirtz Commission also noted that the social and political turbulence during the years of the SAT score decline led high school seniors and juniors to take tests such as the SAT much less seriously than students before them had.

Even without these qualifications, the SAT scores are not a valid assessment of reading achievement in our schools. They measure a very high level of comprehension, and are, therefore, not a measure of functional literacy. They are administered to only high school seniors and juniors, and are, therefore, no measure of the other 10 grades. They are, in fact, administered to only juniors and seniors who are college bound and do not, therefore, even represent the total population of those two grades. To extend interpretations of scores on such tests as the SAT in order to attack reading education across-the-board is a gross misuse of such tests as well as a patently invalid argument.

Another general misuse of data which is prevalent among critics of education might be described as the inappropriate combining of different data in order to draw a single conclusion. The scarcity of reliable data which has been identified, synthesized, and carefully interpreted makes the inclination to combine different data somewhat understandable, but not defensible.

It is a misuse of tests to compare the scores of different populations or the same populations on different tests. Different tests are written with different emphases and at different levels. One test, for example, may emphasize phonics, and another may emphasize structural analysis. A large proportion of still others may be made up of comprehension questions, and the type and degree of comprehension tested may vary greatly from test to test Some critics combine test data on computation achievement with that on reading achievement, and add selective critical comments to draw a general negative conclusion. Unfortunately, this unscientific ap-

proach sweeps logic away before it and has had considerable unwarranted impact on the public

Comparing reading achievement scores over time is difficult when the study is highly controlled. If you use the same test today that was used 20 years ago, you need to examine the test for any value questions which would be valid for the early populations but not for the latter. And if you do the comparison in one area—a large city, for example—you must be sure that the social and economic nature of the school population in that urban area has not changed significantly. The aim, of course, is to compare as broad a population as possible while stratifying and controlling the balance of the samples.

One type of data frequently used by critics might be called anecdotal. I believe strongly in the validity of information that we can garner from interviews. I listen carefully to the hundreds of educators I meet in my professional experience. But I am aware that for such data to be viable, the interviews need to be numerous and random—yet controlled to represent significant factors in the population. And they should be substantiated by other types of data. One has to be suspicious when CBS, for example, presents several very critical parent and teacher interviews as representative of the whole Nation and offers no explanation or statistics as to how these comments validly represent the population.

Anyone can select interviews to support any argument; and while it might be informational for me to tell you that my experience talking to educators suggests this or that about the effectiveness of reading education, it would be foolhardy to accept my anecdotes as hard data that recommends specific decisions. Yet as a Nation, that is what we appear to be doing: We are demanding a "return to the basics" without knowing exactly what we mean by the basics in terms of reading skills and subskills or content control. We do not even have a nationally accepted definition of functional literacy. We are rushing into minimum competency testing with that same lack of understanding. More importantly, we do not have scientific assurance that we ever have been far enough away from the basics to permit us to go back to them.

I would not want this subcommittee to conclude that I believe there is no room for improvement in reading education. Quite the contrary, I am fully committed to helping make reading education ever more effective. And I believe that the Federal Government has an important role to play in this effort—both by helping to clarify the present status of reading achievement in the United States so that fully informed educational decisions can be made and by supporting research and experimentation related to reading instruction. Therefore, I would like to make the following four recommendations:

First, the Federal Government should designate adequate funds that can be used to collect and to generate reliable and valid reading trend data and related contextual data. This is not presently the case. For example, some of the important funding for National Assessment of Educational Progress has been cut. Because of this, some of the comparisons that were originally planned and for which 1971 data was collected, that of young adults, were eliminated.

In addition to the highly dependable research done by NAEP, we need efforts to pull together and analyze valuable pools of extant trend information. For example, there are cities and States with trend data, and the military and the publishing industry have extant information that should be pulled into a central analysis of the status of reading in the Nation. Beyond this, here is performance data available on large populations from earlier periods that would provide trend data if carefully matched with contemporary samples.

It is also important that such quantitative achievement data should be put into proper perspective. Test scores in and of themselves cannot provide complete understanding. It is imperative that related social, economic, and educational factors be studied through qualitative methods such as interviewing and content analysis of written records. The Federal Government should provide adequate funding so that this important contextual information can also be collected and analyzed in relation to the achievement data.

Second, the Federal Government should become actively involved in the dissemination of information regarding national reading trends. Particular care should be given in order to project an accurate picture of the status of literacy. If reliable data indicates Americans are reading better than in the past, that news should be disseminated with the same intensity as that dictated by the urgency suggested by a decline. This public information effort should not only focus on score and related contextual data that has been acquired, but on other information that helps provide a balanced picture. This effort would include data that assesses real national goals, such as our dual commitment to democratic as well as high quality educational opportunities.

Increased Federal funding would be channeled to NAEP and NIE as well as to the Office of Education so that complete literacy information can be disseminated. Dissemination efforts would also be a major role of a Reading Trends Commission. The International Reading Association and the National Education Association are presently exploring the establishment of an independent commission to aid in the identification, collection, and synthesis of reading trend information and to lend credence to its dissemination.

Third, the Federal Government should encourage and fund additional educational research efforts that are directed toward the solution of known problem areas in reading education. It is a well established fact that children from low socioeconomic background are more apt to experience reading difficulties than children from middle or high socioeconomic backgrounds. We need to continue to expend resources to develop reading methods, materials, and programs that can be used more effectively with such populations, taking into account that children with low SES are not all endowed with the same attributes. Thus, a child from one locality with a low socioeconomic background can differ extensively from a child with a low SES in another locality. Because of this, their needs—and consequently the appropriate instructional methodology and materials to be used—should differ.

Fourth, the Federal Government should contribute to the improvement of teacher education by increasing its funding of short-term experimental preservice and inservice training. I would not

have this recommendation misquoted to suggest that I am recommending long-term support for such programs that are ongoing; thus I re-emphasize the short-term and experimental nature of the training I am recommending. I believe that the role of the teacher in reading education is the key to improved instruction. Yet the average secondary content teacher will take less than one semester of courses in professional education preparatory to beginning teaching and there is no guarantee that any one course will deal with reading methodologies. Teacher education programs that incorporate a fifth year of intern teaching, or differentiated staffing, or increased field experiences in schools should be encouraged. Government funds can be of vital assistance to school systems and educational institutions in upgrading the preparation of reading teachers by promoting the development of better courses.

I sincerely appreciate this opportunity to offer the subcommittee my conclusions about reading in the United States, a review of studies I believe are valid indicators of its status, my concern about the misuse of data, and some recommendations that I believe could improve the impact of the Federal Government in its concern for reading as a basic skill.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, Dr. Farr, thank you very, very much. I've got some questions. You have been an extremely thoughtful and well-prepared witness. You have come before us with the benefit of your entire academic and professional careers as one who has worked in this field and studied and analyzed the test data and have made specific recommendations to us rather than just some general "pie in the sky" things, and we appreciate it. Your testimony has been very, very useful.

Let me propound a few questions to you. Pointing to page 7, where you're making your recommendations as to things that the Federal Government might do, and I'll address myself to No. 2. "The Federal Government should become actively involved in the dissemination of information regarding national reading trends," et cetera. Are you proposing that there be some kind of a Federal or national nationwide test promulgated by the Federal Government and administered by the thousands of school districts around this country?

Dr. FARR. No; I am not in favor of that, nor am I in favor of State competency testing programs either. As a matter of fact, I'd like to see the Federal Government—if they could do it, and of course they can—pass a law that not more than one test be administered to any child in one given year; there is far too much testing going on. As a matter of fact, in a study that was just completed, Dolores Durkin found that 12 percent of the time in the area of reading comprehension was devoted to testing and only 2 percent of the time was devoted to teaching reading comprehension—12 percent to testing, and 2 percent to teaching—very interesting finding; this was in Illinois, as a matter of fact.

No, I don't believe that a national test is the answer at all. I believe that the Government can and should become involved though in helping to finance and to put forward data. National Assessment, which the Government funds, is unable to do much with dissemination They were strapped so badly that after testing thousands of young adults in 1971, they couldn't afford to retest

them in 1975; that's a crime, a waste of money. And they are not given money for dissemination. That allows people who know little to say lots about what's going on in this Nation, and what happens then is that we get people who have not studied the data—and there hasn't been money to study it adequately enough to show us where the problems are or to allow us to build on our strengths—we get uninformed critics dictating change. I think that minimum competency assessment is an example of how we have gone after something that isn't going to solve any problems at all, and it is built on the doomsday evidence that exists.

Schools have done a good job; there is a lot more that they can do along with parents, I support almost everything that Reverend Jackson said a few minutes ago, but a national test isn't going to solve the problem. What we do need is good information about what's going on in schools in order to plan better programs; and frankly, when I speak to boards of education, I always ask them, "How can you plan good programs with just test scores?" And they tell me they can't. They need to know a lot more about the schools than just the test scores to plan good programs. Yet the Federal Government, at least in some places, goes about planning educational programs with a paucity of information, indeed misinformation in a number of cases, and that bothers me a great deal.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, I asked that for the record. I don't espouse a national test either. One could have inferred from point No. 2 that maybe you were hinting at that.

Dr. FARR. No, just a better picture of what's going on so better decisionmaking will result.

Senator EAGLETON. OK. I'm impressed by the general thrust of your testimony which in essence is saying this doomsday attitude which is out there in the public, and that is the public conception, that the basic skills are gone to hell; and the country's schools are going to hell; and that the achievement levels of youngsters are going to hell. And that doomsday attitude is out there.

I am impressed with the general thrust of your testimony that there is a need for wide dissemination of accurate evaluation. Now, having said that, in Britain they have a method in approaching public issues, controversial and sensitive vital public issues, with the creation of a Royal Commission in the name of the Queen. A group of distinguished citizens in Britain is brought together to examine a public issue definitely. And we have had a number of Royal Commissions in Britain over the years on Palestine, for instance, dating back to the Balfour Declaration.

President Carter is convening, not a Royal Commission—Mr. Nixon is no longer in the White House—a citizens' commission, as I read about it, in the wake of the Harrisburg incident to inquire into what actually occurred there, and I hope that the thrust of the Commission is to what we should do in the future with respect to nuclear energy.

Now, the question to you is, do you consider this subject matter important enough, from a national point of view, that it might be useful for the President to appoint a national commission composed of distinguished citizens, not only academicians and scholars, but classroom teachers, parents, et cetera., but a distinguished commis-

sion to make kind of a national assessment that you seem to be talking about in some of your recommendations?

Dr. FARR. Yes; and I feel the report of such a commission should be broadly disseminated. I've seen commissions—and I am sure you've seen many—that go through the motions and write a report and it gets filed and is forgotten. But it is, I believe, very important in education today to have reliable information because we have an agenda and things that we need to work on, but we need first to understand those things—the status, where we are—very, very well before we can make those decisions; and it bothers me that people with little data and with reading the conclusions of somebody else's study then spout off to argue that we've got ourselves a problem in education by saying look how bad things are, give us some more money. We've done that time and time and time again and I don't see any chance to counteract that exploitive bad news. I've tried very hard to get some of our information in the newspapers. We usually get it in; we got our Indiana study in the New York Times but on page 37, or something like that. If it had said children in Indiana are totally illiterate, or something of that sort, it would have been I think a lot closer to the front page, and probably would have been, perhaps, a continuing story.

I think we need reliable data; and we have—the National Education Association and the International Reading Association—have established a proposal to develop an independent reading trends commission. We have a proposal; we're going to look for foundation funding. It will be a commission made up of distinguished citizens—and if we can get some funding, I think it would be important. If the Government were to fund such a thing, I think that would be excellent.

Senator EAGLETON. Just a comment on the nature of American life; good news is no news, we all know that. "Valedictorian goes to Harvard" is not worthy of a mention in the newspaper. "Valedictorian robs bank" is a headline. But that's been the nature of news, I guess, since Adam and Eve. The news value wasn't that there was someone named Adam and Eve, the news was that they were carried away with apples. So, it is inevitable that when a report of any kind is issued, whether it be on Harrisburg or on reading or on anything, the news value in the report is going to be the negative things in the report rather than the positive. I despair of ever changing that trend, because again there is no news value in good news.

Now, you are an expert on reading and you have devoted your life to that. Part of this hearing is directed toward writing skills and mathematics skills, and I know you're not qualifying yourself as an expert in those areas. You have devoted your life to reading, but I ask you, as an informed academician, would you be surprised to learn that the testimony before this committee with respect to writing skills, from distinguished educators such as Dr. Giamatti and others, is that the most deplorable decline in fundamental skills is at the writing level. Graduates of even prestigious Ivy league institutions who are verbally articulate, and maybe even rapid pace-setting readers, do not have really the basic fundamentals of writing, including paragraph and sentence structure, punctuation and the ability to clearly set forth in a logical and analyt-

ical way their thoughts. Would you be stunned that that's the kind of testimony we've had?

Dr. FARR. I would start out with your comment that I would not in any way say I know anything about trend data in writing and math, and I'm not an expert in any area other than reading. But the conclusions would not surprise me if other experts came forth with those. The practice of writing in schools and outside of schools seems to me—without any data to support it—to have declined—at least in terms of the amount being done, and therefore the skill's going to decline. If you don't do it, you're not going to get better at it—playing basketball, reading or writing. So, I'd agree with you or with the testimony.

Senator EAGLETON. I've listened very closely to your testimony and said I compliment you for it. Any where in your testimony—I don't recall, I may have missed it—did you anywhere in any of your testimony discuss television either as a beneficial factor in the educational process or as a negative factor?

Dr. FARR. Well, if I put it in, I would go both ways. It is very positive on the reading readiness skills of children, which are higher than at any time in the history of this Nation. The children have just blown the tops of the old reading readiness tests and those on beginning reading skills, and I believe that that's a fact. A hypothesis is that television is probably partially responsible for that. However, I think that there is some reason to be concerned that at the upper grade levels, and indeed among adults, television takes the place of reading and therefore gets in the way and is a negative factor there.

Television isn't going to go away, so I'd like to see educational programs learn to use it even better than they now are. The sale of books like "Roots" and "Little House On the Prairie" and so on, are just fantastic once it gets on television. The sales of those books aren't bad beforehand, but they're fantastic afterward. I think we need to make use of television in helping kids know what reading is and that letters stand for symbols and sounds and words. TV's impact can be very positive in the lower grade levels. We've got to use it even better than we are now. At the upper grade levels, I'm afraid that it takes too much of the leisure time of both high school students and adults.

Senator EAGLETON. Have you looked at or have you performed studies of your own as to the beneficial impact of programs such as "Sesame Street" and "Electric Company?" What youngsters in the country are watching those programs; that is, do studies show that youngsters in Kenilworth watch "Sesame Street" and "Electric Company," but not nearly as many youngsters on the Chicago South Side watch those two shows?

Dr. FARR. I have reviewed those studies; I have not conducted any myself. I am generally positively impressed with the results of studies that show that "Sesame Street" and "Electric Company" have been good. I've seen some data that suggested that students from higher SES and middle SES watch those programs even more than students from lower SES; but I am very vague on that, frankly, and I think that would be too bad; I think there ought to be——

Senator EAGLETON. Are you aware of instances where the public school system has utilized PBS for the purpose of classroom teaching specifically in the area of reading?

Dr. FARR. Yes. There are a number of those throughout the country dealing with some of the high school programs on literature, and in the elementary school programs as well; and I think that though the fact that commercial television is such an all-encompassing, it isn't going to go away kind of thing, that we've got to learn to deal with that somehow better than we now are.

I saw one very interesting program on an experiment that a teacher had developed dealing with students' civil rights; and the assignments were to watch such programs as "Starsky and Hutch" and things of that sort to find the number of times that civil rights were being violated in those programs, and then to read about civil rights. And the students became very involved with it and they started to write letters to the TV programs. That's a small kind of thing, but I think very positive and an example of what we might do: if they aren't going to change "Starsky and Hutch," let's use it, because the kids are going to watch it to some extent. That isn't—as someone said—giving assignments in watching "Starsky and Hutch," I'm admitting they're going to watch it no matter what I do, and so I'm going to use it.

Senator EAGLETON. Does any of your bibliography, the final sheet of your prepared material, relate to the positive use of PBS as a classroom teaching tool so far as reading enhancement is concerned?

Dr. FARR. No, I don't believe so.

Senator EAGLETON. When you get back to Indiana would you be willing to send to us a one-page analysis citing source data that you think is available, because we'd very much like to have it.

Dr. FARR. Yes; I certainly will.

One of the questions you asked earlier was about the decline of the fourth, fifth and sixth grades, and I sort of said I'd come back to that.

Senator EAGLETON. Yes; would you?

Dr. FARR. It's a touchy question to answer. First of all, the declines that we see at those grade levels are very much dependent on the community that you're in. I'm so displeased with people that just pull out a test and give it in a particular city now because they gave it 15 years ago; and they say, look what's happened. If you look at the socioeconomic changes of some of those communities, at the ages of the subjects, and at the dropout changes, you get very interesting kinds of results.

There's another factor—and I hate to say anything negative because everybody else is doing that—but I think that we are, in conclusion number eight, we are overemphasizing isolated reading skills. A few years ago I said that all you had to do, if you wanted to know what a title 1 program is, is go in and you find diagnostic reading skills, with reading broken up into 400 objectives and skill and drill programs with a teacher rating. They, in my opinion, were very bad programs; and there was very little teaching of reading comprehension. Now, the reason they did that was because—and I'm an author of the tests used nationally—that the lower level tests emphasize isolated reading skills. You have to

match the letter with a sound and you have to do those kinds of activities. The upper level reading tests are comprehension only tests, and I think the overemphasis on isolated reading skills in the lower grades is and was causing some problems in reading comprehension in the upper grade levels. So, yeah, I agree, there's a problem there and that's one of the things I'd like to see us pay attention to in the funding of Federal programs if we develop guidelines about the specific programs. Skill and drill on isolated skills versus teaching of reading comprehension are quite different things. The diagnostic tests used as prescriptions, which are alright when they're used as product assessments, dictate a wrong kind of instruction; that's a very important issue.

Senator EAGLETON. Very well put. I realize that you're reluctant to say anything egregiously negative because you realize that will get reported more clearly and the evil that men do gets reported more than the good.

I refer you to page 5; I think I'm in disagreement with you on the third paragraph on page 5. You seem to belittle or make light of the decline in the SAT scores when you say, well, these "are administered only to high school seniors and juniors, therefore they're no measure of the other 10 grades. They are, in fact, administered to only juniors and seniors who are college-bound and do not, therefore, even represent the total population of those two grades."

One could infer from that that you're saying, oh, well, let's not get too concerned about the decline in these scores for the college bound, that's just for the good old college-bound kids. You infer that maybe the scores are increasing for the noncollege bound, but that's not the case, as you know.

Dr. FARR. No; and I don't mean to in any way belittle the scholastic achievement test and our study of them. I think that there are a lot of reasons, and one of them might be a decline on reading comprehension in the upper grade levels for the very advanced students. But in order to take the scholastic achievement test—now this is arbitrary, but we studied it carefully—you have to read at about a 9th or a 10th grade level just to take the test. I mean you can't even get one answer right unless you just guess your way through all of them, and don't read anything. So, you've got to read at a 9th or 10th grade level. That means it's not a basic literacy test at all. It has a lot to say about what we're teaching in American high schools in that there's a more diversified curriculum today and they're not doing as well on the things that they did as well on a few years ago and we should study that and find out why and decide whether that's good or bad. That's important to do. But to use them as they are being used is a little bit like saying our Olympic swimmers are doing a little bit poorer today than they did 4 years ago and therefore, to say that the kids in elementary schools are not swimming as well. They indeed may be swimming more because the highly competitive kids don't have as much time to practice because we've got these free reading programs. It's just a matter of talking about those reading declines; they have nothing to do with basic literacy skills. I think we need data on basic literacy skills very badly and I think national assessment for 9-year-olds, for example, gives us that and then is completely swept

away. I very seldom hear the fact that 9-year-old black children in the United States are closing the gap on 9-year-old white children. Title 1 funds helped do that. And I find that scholastic achievement tests are being used to talk about basic literacy, but national assessment gets mentioned only once in awhile. And then all of those who want to sell their own program use the data that serve them. Not only does bad news sell better than good news, but it's a matter of if you want to get your thing through, start out telling what a disaster we've got, and then all kinds of people will talk about the disaster we've got. I'd rather talk about where we are, the reading comprehension—well, I've said that, I won't repeat.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, it's worth emphasizing again.

This is a tough question to answer, and if you can't, I'll understand. You've obviously studied the Willard Wirtz report. Do you basically agree with the findings of fact and the conclusions that the Wirtz Commission made?

Dr. FARR. Yes; as a matter of fact I thought they did a fine job; and there are 25 appendices that go with that report, and most people in my business, most educators, read what it says about the Wirtz report in a place like Newsweek and they quote the bad stuff and they never read the full study. I think the full study is not even part of the educators' agenda; they don't understand it. No, I believe that the commission did a fine job of taking a look at that; and they've suggested additional research. In general I find the report very impressive. As a matter of fact we'd love to have Willard Wirtz head a reading trends commission; he was the cochairperson of that commission, and we are thinking about that.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, you're an author of textbooks. Would you say that today's textbooks have less demanding standards than textbooks of a decade or so ago?

Dr. FARR. In general the reading level of the texts today are probably lower than those in the past; that's a general conclusion.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you decry that?

Dr. FARR. No; because one of the things we've done—and again, we have to decide whether it's a dirty word or not, is practice social promotion. We've moved to social promotion. When you look at the average age of children, you find that they're much younger today. And also you do have a situation where we're keeping more kids in school; in 1944–45 the dropout rate in Indiana was 18 percent and today it's 4 percent, from 9th to 10th grade. The war years had an awful lot to do with that, of course, but it wasn't out of line with previous and subsequent years.

We give much greater attention to individual differences in instruction today. We give much greater attention to trying to get something that a kid can read very successfully. When I went to school, we were promoted from 5A to 5B and it wasn't uncommon to find a kid who at the end of eighth grade had flunked three or four times and quickly dropped out of school. Today that doesn't happen. That means that we're keeping more kids in, and they're younger, true. And the achievement averages in some communities therefore declined but they're not the same kids as were in school there years before. The textbooks are aimed at the average all the time, although in high schools they're generally aimed a little bit

above the average, but in elementary schools they're aimed above the average.

One of the things to consider is that when you hear statements about how no one reads at a fifth grade level or half the population reads below a fifth grade level in fifth grade, that results because of the way the test is built. You give a test and if there are 100 points on it and the average student gets 50 right, that score is ranked 5.0—for fifth grader. Half of the fifth graders taking the test can be expected to score below 5.0. These scores are the most misinterpreted, misunderstood numbers we've got going. We in education have done a pretty rotten job of explaining them even to our own educators in classrooms, much less to the public; and it's a very confusing situation.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you advocate that there be two textbooks for a year—hypothetical fifth grade class—one, the textbook that is teaching down, as it were, and another textbook that teaches up, and that the class be divided between those who could accommodate to the downer and those who could accommodate to the upper?

Dr. FARR. Absolutely. Not only that, I advocate that a wide range of textbooks be used in a classroom. You know, we're going to have kids that come to fifth grade being able to run at all different rates of speed; we're going to have kids forever more coming to fifth grade being able to read at all different levels. With better reading instruction, the range of individual differences increases; it does not decrease. And therefore you're going to have to use a wide range of materials in any instructional setting to meet those individual differences; and most textbook publishers have devised materials for such needs over the last 8 to 10 years. They are moving even more dramatically, if the schools would—and a lot of them are—using, looking toward multitext levels, so that a kid can learn something from a textbook and not merely be frustrated by it throughout his educational career.

So, the range of differences will be great and we've got to deal with it.

Senator EAGLETON. Another general question. Assuming that the fifth grade classroom has a divergence of textbooks that you're espousing, a range, not just the bright student's book and the "not so bright" student's book, but maybe some in between. How often do you think those books ought to be changed?

Dr. FARR. You mean by having the—or how often does the child change a book?

Senator EAGLETON. Well, the child maybe goes on to the sixth grade and then there's some different books in the sixth.

Dr. FARR. Yes, right.

Senator EAGLETON. But how often should the Chicago public school system be buying the latest model put out by McGraw-Hill?

Dr. FARR. I would say across the country, especially in the area of reading, they should buy them—I think they buy them too often. I think we waste a lot of money on continuously changing books and having these mandatory changes every 5 years so that a good text is quickly out of date and we won't even look at anything that's 4 years old. My God, it takes 6 years to build a book, so I think there's too much spent in that regard and we could save a lot

of money, I think, by using some of the stories in books that have been around in very flexible ways.

Senator EAGLETON. Some States have gotten into the business of teacher accountability tests in the last few years. Do you have any views on this trend?

Dr. FARR. Well, I think in law and in medicine that professionals are responsible for their actions; yet you might win a case even though the patient might die because you might have done the very best you could. In education you have to learn to be accountable for practices and not just results. That is, in education we have not defined very clearly what are the basic malpractices of teaching a child to read. For example, using the grade equivalent from a standardized test as the level at which the youngster should be given instructional materials is malpractice in my opinion. Having youngsters read oral roundrobin, one after another, as the predominant form of reading instruction in primary grades is educational malpractice. It's a disaster if you do it all the time. And this is educational practice that occurs in classroom after classroom. I think our national professional associations have to get after and get on and get developing a clear definition of what is educational malpractice.

I think I'm still a good teacher of reading, and I can work with youngsters. But I cannot guarantee certain test scores. I can guarantee the very best professional practice that I know how to deliver and I hope I'm held accountable for those practices. But there are times when—and I was in Detroit last week where a youngster attended school less than 20 percent of the time—I can't be accountable for test scores. I'm accountable for my practices; I think we haven't defined those yet in education, so I don't think we're ready to move into that, but that's the kind of accountability I'd like to see us involved in—professional accountability for our practices—and we're not there yet, not by a long shot.

Test scores help us to define where our problems are—where we need to do other kinds of things; but accountability shouldn't be whether you get a test score increase. That shouldn't determine whether you're hired or fired. To do that would be a disaster because you would just pick the test and the test would dictate the curriculum and you'd have people drilling on them all the time and it would be bad.

Senator EAGLETON. I think it's fair to say that the basic emphasis of the Federal educational programs are concentrated or directed toward the elementary grades, as opposed to the secondary. Do you think that's misplaced thrust?

Dr. FARR. No, not at all. I think that we need to do a lot in reading in that area, that's for sure. But I think we have neglected the secondary level. Obviously, I'm saying I'd like to have both emphasized; and I think that the reading education for a high school teacher at Indiana University is not any different than at lots of other places. They take about eight courses in education—that's all—total number. Not one required in the teaching of reading. Yet there's an awful lot to learn in teaching reading at those qrade levels. We have to do much at the secondary level.

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Farr, I could spend at least another hour with you. You've been a very, very thoughtful witness; very helpful

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to us. I can assure you that your testimony will play a significant role in our deliberations on this subject and we are very pleased to have had you as a witness.

Dr. FARR. Thank you, very much. Can I just leave this here?

Senator EAGLETON. Yes. It will not be printed in the record, but it will be part of the record as an appendix.

Thank you, Doctor.

Mr. Leroy Lovelace, English teacher at the Wendell Phillips High School.

By way of introduction of Mr. Lovelace I'll have printed in the record at this point an article from the September 12, 1977, Newsweek magazine, that has a doomsday headline that Dr. Farr, I think, would dispute. The doomsday headline is: "City Schools in Crisis," and then as part of a six-page or so article, there is a one-page article on Mr. Lovelace, and I'll just quote a bit of it:

> Like many inner city schools, Wendell Phillips High School on Chicago's near South Side is known as a trouble spot. Inside the decrepit brown brick building drugs are sold and used, teacher and student absenteeism is high, and the threat of violence hangs in the air. But the hopelessness that infects much of the school has not touched Leroy Lovelace, who has taught English there for 17 years.
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> "Phillips is not a hopeless situation," he says. "I wouldn't stay if I didn't think there was something I could do." Lovelace, age 47, is indeed a doer. His very first demand is that students must come to the class regularly and too many absences mean an automatic failing grade. And although the school's overall truancy rate continues to climb, Lovelace gets near perfect attendance. "It doesn't make you popular," he concedes, "but you can't be any more kind on the kids than society is going to be on them."

And then the article goes on and it's quite a tribute to Mr. Lovelace.

[The following was received for the record:]

EDUCATION

Children of the cities: The future of their schools may determine the fate of

City Schools

In the big cities of America, the public school was once a temple of sorts, it is fast becoming a ruin. All too typically, it is a gray structure of indeterminate age, its courtyard littered with paper and broken glass, its walls embla-zoned with defiant graffiti: PUERTO RICO LIBRE, FLINT—STONED AGAIN, SAVAGE SKULLS. On the cement playgrounds young athletes dive, dodge and duck, but inside the mood is seldom playful. Crowds of youngsters jostle to their destinations through stark hallways. Bathrooms are havens for those who want a quick swig of wine or a puff on a joint. In the classrooms, teachers brace themselves nervously, hoping that the day will pass peacefully—and that a handful of students may even learn something.

Nearly 5 million chil[illegible] percent of the public school[illegible] attend school in the clas[illegible] big U.S. cities. Yet the ed[illegible]se children receive amount[illegible]ational scandal. Their achievement levels are three, four, even five years behind the averages of students nationwide. Their halls are awash with drugs and violence: last year, cases of aggravated assault in schools topped 150,000 and vandalism cost school districts an estimated $600 million. Truancy is epidemic, dropping out before the end of high school all too common. Only a small minority of students from the central cities have the faintest hope of going to college. Costs are soaring, cities can't pay the bills, and school board after school board is forced to cut "frills" such as music, art, physical education—even kindergarten. David Seeley, president of the Public Education Association in New York City, warns that what happens to the urban school systems may decide the fate of America's effort to provide free education for all children—rich and poor. "Public education is on trial in big cities," says Seeley. "If we can't solve the problems, public education won't survive."

This year, once again, the big city systems face an array of potential troubles. Last week, teachers in Boston agreed to postpone a strike pending further negotiations on salary increases, but if the talks fail, the city's 70,000 students may find their classrooms closed. Chicago's Board

Vandalized classroom in Washington. Nationally, the annual cost is $600 million

Newsweek

public education in America

in Crisis

of Education has narrowly averted a teachers' strike, but officials are fearful that state-ordered desegregation plans for their schools may provoke bitter anti-busing protests when school opens this week. Los Angeles, too, is under orders to desegregate, and jittery officials are worried that once the courts approve a plan, opposition to it may be violent. The school districts of Philadelphia, Detroit and Toledo, among others, are burdened by budget deficits totaling hundreds of millions of dollars. Though they have cut deeply into school budgets, officials are not at all sure that they can afford to keep school open throughout the coming year.

Have the big-city schools become unmanageable? To many, the answer seems to be yes. "Being realistic, I don't hold out much hope," says Solomon Smith, a teacher in Washington, D.C. "Things aren't getting any better, they're getting worse." Still, there are signs that public attention to the long-neglected city systems may yet lead to some improvement. U.S. Commissioner of Education Ernest Boyer has made urban schools one of his top priorities. Many huge districts are struggling to streamline their finances and to push through programs for reform. In inner-city pockets across the country, exceptionally dedicated teachers and administrators are quietly making progress with their students (page 67). And various experiments, from teacher-evaluation projects to magnet schools and business coalitions for better education seem to be providing fresh hope in some cities.

Almost everyone agrees that the main trouble is a lack of money. Supplies and maintenance cost more and more. Teachers' unions can be particularly troublesome. Not only do strikes close classrooms (152 school districts were hit last year), but their resolution is expensive. If Boston's teachers win the salary boost they are demanding, it will cost $22 million over the next two years.

But as business and the middle class flee cities for the suburbs, the tax base erodes. And last year, educators across the country faced an unprecedented taxpayers' revolt as they tried to raise money. "It's the only tax they can vote their opinion on," says Clem Sutton, financial officer for Detroit's nearly bankrupt school system. "Maybe they understand that schools need money, but when it has to come right out of their own pockets, that's another thing."

City administrators who have to cut budgets often pare school funds with particular vigor. "Police, fire and sanitation services can be traced right to the mayor," explains Albert Shanker, president of the American Federation of Teachers, whose 441,000 members are largely from city districts. "When those services erode, the mayor gets blamed. But when the school system erodes, the mayor can blame the Board of Education."

At the state level, urban educators face a different kind of resistance. Many state legislatures are dominated by suburban and rural interests that have little sympathy for city problems. This year, Philadelphia educators argued passionately for state help with their $175 million deficit. The state gave them only $50 million in aid. "Despite the fact that we have here a viable, functioning, progressing urban public-school system," the city's superintendent Michael Marcase told Congressional education committees, "we face the possibility of watching it all go down the financial drain."

It is not surprising that state legislatures view the financial requests of city schools with some suspicion. A number of studies have suggested that merely throwing funds at school problems does little good. Last year, researchers for the Rand Corp. analyzed eleven New York ghetto schools that had received $40 million in Federal money over four years. They found no improvement at all in the low academic levels and high truancy rates that the Federal money was supposed to fight.

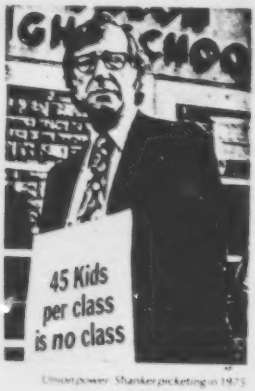
Increases in funding often prove ineffective because many big school systems are scandalously mismanaged. Two years ago, when Robert Alioto (no relation to ex-mayor Joseph Alioto) took over as superintendent of the San Francisco Unified School District, he found the system in utter chaos. Officials had finished the 1972-73 school year on a pencil-thin budget—only to discover that they were running an $8 million surplus. Teachers had been overpaid by $98,000. So Byzantine was the bureaucracy that all requests for equipment for classrooms had to have the approval of both school board and city hall. Teachers often waited nearly three months just to get new erasers, and many, instead, bartered for necessary items with their colleagues.

Chicago busing protest: Unmanageable!

In New York City, Comptroller Harrison Goldin is in the midst of a full-scale "performance audit" of the Board of Education, and he already is giving the board a failing grade. According to Goldin, only 41 per cent of New York's $2.9 billion education budget is spent on classroom instruction for the city's 1 mil-

tion schoolchildren. The rest, Goldin says, goes to support a top-heavy administration. One district pays twelve more principals than it has schools, and officials at 110 Livingston Street, home of the Board of Ed, cannot even say for certain how many people work in the building. Maintenance in city schools has deteriorated alarmingly. Some lack fire extinguishers and others are infested by fleas and stray cats. Last week, another controversy emerged when one community-school-board president said that the central board had failed to evaluate some experimental programs on time—and had lost $1.2 million in state aid because of the error.

Despite such horror stories, says Wilson Riles, the energetic black superintendent of public education for the State of California, it is not the fault of bureaucrats alone that big-city schools are so bad. The schools, he suggests, simply cannot cope with the students they now serve—the children of the largely black and Hispanic urban poor. "I am not talking about poverty, but about what poverty brings with it," Riles explains. "What we have are parents beset with all kinds of difficulties, not able or don't know how to take care of their youngsters." Those youngsters, he observes, turn out to be the most difficult student body the nation's schools have ever faced. They arrive unprepared to cope with school. They get little help at home, since their parents are usually poorly educated. And



Union power: Shanker picketing in 1975

1975 Boston busing scene. Carrity: Should Federal courts run the schools by fiat?

they bring to class the unruly, irreverent manners of the street.

This troublesome new breed of students is unlikely to disappear. In a study of the population of urban classrooms prepared for the Hudson Institute, Diane Ravitch, a historian at Columbia University's Teachers College, details "an inexorable one-way flight from city schools" by whites. Members of minority groups now outnumber white pupils in all but six of the nation's big-city systems, and projections indicate that the balance may soon tip in several more as well. Between 1968 and the school year just past, Ravitch shows, Atlanta lost 78.3 per cent of its white enrollment, Detroit lost 61.6 per cent, San Francisco 56.4 per cent, San Antonio 53.3 per cent. "Not only are these schools becoming overwhelmingly non-white, they're becoming heavily poor," says Ravitch. "Large numbers have very serious educational problems, and while expanded educational opportunities have helped a minority to do brilliantly—go to college and beyond—the bottom is much, much larger, and it's steadily sinking lower."

For some cities, the population shift causes extraordinary logistical problems. In Los Angeles, for example, Mexican-Americans are rapidly becoming the dominant group in the 600,000-pupil system. By 1981, the school district estimates, whites will be a distinct minority—just 24.4 per cent of the pupils—and black enrollment will fall to 22.1 per cent. Hispanic students will make up a commanding 43.2 per cent of the school population. Chicano community leaders are adamant in their demand for bilingual education to ensure that non-English-speaking students will not be left behind with language difficulties. Yet the typical Los Angeles teacher—female, white, 41 years old—is not qualified to teach bilingual classes. "What do we do with senior teachers who have worked well but don't speak Spanish?" asks Ed Romeo, field representative for the California Teachers Association.

Ask almost any teacher what he or she considers the top problem in the changing city classrooms, and the answer will be "discipline." Many of them feel deserted by the parents, administrators and legal officials who once supported a teacher's right to keep order. Last year, an 8-year-old boy walked into his third-grade classroom at Public School 27 in Brooklyn with a loaded 22-caliber pistol. The teacher disarmed the child, then marched him down to the principal's office and recommended that he be suspended from school. But the principal took no action. "Can you believe it?" asks teacher John Liuzzo. "One day after he carries a loaded gun into his classroom, the kid is back in school." Teachers at PS 27 took the case to family court. Their complaint was dismissed. "While the boy was sitting in the principal's office, the principal had not informed him of his constitutional rights," explains Liuzzo with disgust.

While teachers struggle against overt misbehavior, many of them warn that the lack of discipline runs deeper. "The children don't understand that learning is not easy, that it takes application," says Minnie Woodson, a member of the school board of Washington, D.C. "They don't know how to apply themselves."

Nor, charge a number of critics, do teachers know how to teach them. "Children aren't motivated to learn in city classrooms," says Kenneth Clark, a black child psychologist who has been a member of the New York State Board of Regents for more than a decade. "They aren't held to standards, they're told they don't need to know how to read—that any language they speak is acceptable. Their schools are brainwashing them

into a sense of inferiority." Clark complains that the unions protect incompetent teachers and make it impossible to reward superior ones. "What we need are teachers in the elementary grades who are competent to teach reading, spelling, arithmetic and writing," he insists. There's no point in branching out into other fields if kids have no fundamental skills."

A number of big-city school districts have begun experimenting with the sort of back-to-basics policies that Clark advocates. This year, elementary students in Chicago's schools will not be assigned to grades; instead, they will work at their own levels of competence in every subject until they meet standards for promotion set by the school board (NEWSWEEK, Aug. 15). To graduate from grammar school, they will have to read and compute approximately as well as the average U.S. seventh-grader. The Baltimore school district has designed a new system of teacher evaluation that will judge teachers—and hinge their promotions—on how much improvement their students show in their work. And this year, the Washington, D.C., system will introduce a new "competency-based" curriculum that sets out clearly defined objectives for each pupil, year by year, and includes frequent tests to measure how well he or she achieves them.

One of the most encouraging developments for big-city education may be the recognition by local community leaders that good schools are good business. San Francisco superintendent Alioto has reformed his chaotic system with the help of business volunteers from corporations like Bank of America, Standard Oil of California and Southern Pacific. A woman who had retired ear-

A TEACHER WHO GETS RESULTS

Like many inner-city schools, Wendell Phillips High on Chicago's New South Side is known as a trouble spot. Inside the decrepit brown-brick building, drugs are sold and used, teacher and student absenteeism is high and the threat of violence hangs in the air. But the hopelessness that infects much of the school has not touched Leroy Lovelace, who has taught English there for seventeen years. "Phillips is not a hopeless situation," he says. "I wouldn't stay if I didn't think there was something I could do."

Lovelace, 47, is indeed a doer. His very first demand is that students must come to class regularly; too many absences mean an automatic failing grade. And although the school's over-all truancy rate continues to climb, Lovelace gets near-perfect attendance. "It doesn't make you popular," he concedes, "but you can't be any more kind to the kids than society is going to be to them."

An Alabama native, Lovelace attended Dutch Reformed Church schools in Mobile, graduated from Hope College in Michigan and worked briefly for the U.S. Post Office before coming to Phillips. At the heart of his teaching are the fundamental skills of communication, reading and writing. "I didn't have to get back to basics," he explains, "because I never left them." Although his fourth-year English class is meant to be a course in comparative literature, Lovelace usually has to begin it with a thorough drill in grammar and spelling. Often, he notes, the students are highly intelligent, but they simply have never learned how to write proper English. "I don't penalize them for not knowing anything I haven't taught," he says, "because with these kids you can't assume that they know anything." But once Lovelace has explained a point, the students' grades drop if their writing does not reflect it.

Lovelace: "If you really care, you can't give up"

With the basics under its belt, the class moves on to the study of world literature, including works by Homer, Ibsen, Melville, Camus, T.S. Eliot and E.B. White. "I'd rather teach one novel or short story well than teach ten haphazardly," insists Lovelace, "because if you do it well, the kids can apply what they've learned to other works." How does he arouse the interest of his underachieving pupils in good writing? "It's a matter of taking the time to teach the students just how to read a book," Lovelace says. "Once they can grasp the subtleties and symbolism, the characters come alive off the page."

In addition, Lovelace's students must write a weekly theme based on class reading and their own experiences. On "theme-discussion day," students present and defend their essays before a jury of their classmates—a practice that Lovelace believes provides an extra measure of competitive motivation.

Lovelace makes stiff demands on himself, too, starting the school day with a 7:45 a.m. class and grading papers at home most nights until 10. "I love teaching," he admits. "If you really care, you can't give up. I'm excited about what I do. My satisfaction comes from seeing my kids improve."

Essay Contest: There are special rewards for exceptionally dedicated teachers like Lovelace. In one recent group of seniors, Lovelace recalls, a youngster who was a gifted and witty speaker could barely spell his own name. For several months, the teacher worked with the student "one on one," battling the boy's impatience and insisting that he redo his compositions until "they were correct." By Christmas, his pupil had improved so dramatically that he took second place in a South Side interschool essay contest.

Last year, Lovelace taught a group of seniors who had started the term with what he considered shockingly little knowledge of English composition. Although they made progress during the school year, even Lovelace was astonished by the high quality of their final-exam essays. Except for four students, he reports, the whole class got A's and B's—grades he seldom awards. At the end of one examination book was a note from a student who had earlier done all he could to get out of Lovelace's course. "Thanks," it said, "for being one of the greatest things to happen to me in my senior year."

—[illegible]

Head start: Mothers and children learn by loving at Detroit development center

ly from her job as vice president of a bank developed an early-retirement system for San Francisco's teachers—a plan, Alioto's administrators say, that would have cost a fortune if designed by a paid consultant. A deputy auditor from another bank is designing the district's first internal-audit system.

In Atlanta, the chamber of commerce's task force on schools encourages real-estate salesmen not to denigrate the public system to prospective buyers and tries to keep salesmen and parents informed about the latest improvements in city classrooms. This year, school officials are cautiously optimistic that the effort is paying off: they expect about 1,000 white students, who had left city classrooms for private and parochial institutions, to return to public schools.

The most impressive of all the business efforts, however, may well be that of Dallas. In the fall of 1975, U.S. District Judge William M. Taylor, who had ordered the city to desegregate its classrooms, issued a challenge to community leaders: "I say that the business leaders of Dallas have defaulted," he charged. "They have left the district to meet the problem alone and unaided." If the schools were to collapse, Taylor warned, so would the city's economy and its ability to lure new industry to the city.

Jack Lowe, chairman of the Dallas Alliance, a civic-action group, was struck by Taylor's charge. He called together a task force of white, black and Mexican-American business men and community leaders who haggled out a desegregation plan, then turned out in the corporate community asking for support. They got it, reports NEWSWEEK's Lea Donosky. The Dallas chamber of commerce provided $180,000 to make two films promoting voluntary desegregation. Corporate executives offered advice to the schools on career education. Today, 179 local businesses participate in an "Adopt a School" program. The companies give employees time off to work as teacher aides, they donate money for special equipment and they provide workmen to do repair and construction work in school buildings. This fall, a new foundation will attempt yet another innovation: it will try to raise private donations for the public schools, much as colleges raise their capital.

In some bigcity school districts the efforts of committed citizens and enlightened administration have produced bright experiments that could be duplicated elsewhere. Among them:

• "Magnet schools" that emphasize thematic curriculums were invented as tools to promote voluntary desegregation by attracting both middle-class whites and poor blacks. Some offer exemplary programs in the humanities. Others stress the arts or career training in fields such as business and public health. The schools are designed to give students a chance to continue their studies in areas that genuinely interest them. And educators in Boston, Milwaukee, St. Louis, Chicago and Dallas have found that they attract good teachers and keep potential dropouts who are turned off by ordinary schools.

In Boston, one-fourth of the district students are now enrolled in 22 magnet schools, many of which are run with the help of local colleges and corporations. The largest, with 2,155 students, is English

EDUCATION

High School, which offers college preparatory work, business courses and a special theater program developed by Brandeis University. Its students also have special access to internships and summer jobs with the John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Co.

• In some cities, concerned community groups have taken it upon themselves to help local students. New York City's Boys Harbor, founded in 1937 as a camp for disadvantaged city youngsters, has served as a model for other such programs. During the summer, a Boys Harbor camp offers children a chance to get out of the city and encourages trips to concerts, museums and other cultural centers. When school is in session, the center offers after-hours classes where pupils can get help in reading, math or almost any subject. "We kick ass, and we are always very clear to the kids about what our expectations of them are," says director Lonnie Williams. "We believe in hard work." The children seem to like it: they travel far from their own neighborhoods to get to the center's headquarters. New York's School District 4, which surrounds Boys Harbor, cooperates fully with the program—and welcomes the extra help.

• New York's Bank Street College of Education, a graduate school emphasizing urban teaching, has established six parent-child development centers—in New Orleans, Houston, San Antonio, Detroit, Indianapolis and Birmingham—to help poor children get some of the head-start education middle-class kids

Rules: Don't blame the bureaucrats—entirely

Senator EAGLETON. We are delighted, sir, to have you as a witness, and you may proceed.

STATEMENT OF LEROY LOVELACE, ENGLISH TEACHER, WENDELL PHILLIPS HIGH SCHOOL

Mr. LOVELACE. The year 1979 seems to be an appropriate time to hold a hearing on basic skills. It is the "International Year of the Child." To begin my statement in defense of the basics, I should like to cite a quote, a quote that best pinpoints what education has to be about, in my belief, if it is about its business to cure some of its present ills.

Man is free to the extent that he has the capacity, the opportunity, and the incentive to give expression to what is in him, and to develop his potentialities. Though he most often has the capacity, the average student today, especially if he is an inner city one, is given too little opportunity to challenge what is in him, and certainly not enough incentive to develop his potentialities. He is not given individual responsibility that is required for his personal role in his development. As such, he gains little revelation and insight by combining events with his thinking, his feeling, his participation—all of this because he lacks the basic skills of communication. His lack of these skills is not so much that he has not been taught as it is how he has been taught, and what he has been allowed to get away with. For example, if he has the rare opportunity to write, he is allowed to abuse almost every mechanical skill that is necessary to make his meaning clear, the excuses being that for the teacher to put stress on such incorrections would further wound the student's self-image—his fragile ego—or that one does not have time to grade or check a paper littered with so many errors.

So, the student continues to write without meaning, to meander. When he is taught reading, he, too often, is taught about reading rather than taught to read; that is, he is taught reading skills but is seldom required to use them by reading. One has to read in order to read; one has to write in order to write, thereby learning how to think, which is the essential of what education is all about. Writing challenges one to think; therefore it is important; it forces one to organize and reorganize one's thoughts and feelings, one's experiences. Writing is important because when writing, the language one uses must substitute for facial expressions, body movement, tone of voice, and eye contact. Writing forces one into precision and choice of diction and syntax. Writing is an uninterrupted expression of thinking; writing, most of all, is helping one to understand language by using language.

One major problem related to teaching English is fragmentation. Students do not see how the three strands of English—grammar, composition, and literature—tie in with one another. Moreover, students often do not see how English, the academic subject, relates to English, the language that is so essential to their lives. Many, perhaps most, students have not found English meaningful because they have not been able to see that what they learn in an English class can help them to organize their experiences and to better understand their world. English, the subject, should provide a hu-

manizing and meaningful experience for students; if it does not do so now, then we must search for new ways to teach it.

If I may, and have time, I would like to read one of my examples of how I think reading and writing should be taught; they must be taught together, and this is an example of one of my activities. You have to forgive the fact that it might be overdone—I'm an English teacher and I like style:

> To turn on the faucet of learning in the average inner-city classroom is not unlike turning it on in any other classroom. If there is a difference, that difference is one of time. Where the faucet in a more affluent classroom may be somewhat drained from the beginning, the average inner-city classroom is almost always clogged—clogged with negative vestiges of hostile peer pressure, undeveloped skills of communication, and with little self-confidence. The untapping of these requires time—time for the proper plunging—the use of air with the suction of force. Once let loose, the stream of knowledge then begins to flow; it flows freely; it flows gently; and it flows with certainty.

Though not as yet too freely, my senior English class has already begun to flow with a bit of certainty. Albert Camus's short story, "The Guest," helped set the stream aflow.

Other than responding to their own individual and others' writings, the students had had only two short stories prior to "The Guest," to which they had had the chance to respond to a piece of literature. There is a reason for this. As always, with my classes, the students spend their first 10 weeks writing, discussing and rewriting, thereby developing the necessary skills of communication. As such, what method to use as an initial approach to Camus was not clear. Though they, the students, would wrestle with the concept of the hero they had not done that. Though they would study Camus extensively, they had not done that, and though they would spend a lot of time reading and responding to many types of literature, they had done little of that.

With all of these "could have" responsibilities eliminated as possible approaches, and even if they had not, neither way would provide absolute interpretive security, ultimately the students, as readers, would be left with the story itself. Certainly this is true of those critics who profess that a work of art exists independently of its author.

So, with these limitations in mind I gleaned from her book "Literature and Exploration," Louise M. Rosenblatt's suggestion—that of not letting teachers be or become analogous to typical American spectator sports, whereby the students sit on the sidelines watching the instructor or professor react to a work of art. I, as she further suggested, simply told the class to read the story, leaving them free to grapple with their own reaction. I gave them the opportunity, hoping that they would have the courage to approach this piece of literature, at least, personally, to let it mean something to them directly. The classroom was already providing a feeling of security; responding to each other's writing made them feel that each of their responses was worth expressing and that that expression was worth someone's listening.

Having read the selection, each student was asked to write his or her response to what had been read; that is, what did he or she pay particular attention to while reading? The responses were explosive, almost all responding to the protagonist's struggle with the twofold conflict: Should a murderer be allowed to go free and

unpunished or should he, the protagonist, bring such a man to prison knowing that the murderer will be put to death—a form of murder itself.

Being a moral person, the protagonist sees the diversion in both. Thus, the classroom itself, through written response, presented the problem that was to be probed in depth. To make it more challenging I chose two groups of students, five in each group, to sit as a panel of experts on the issue.

Given the moral uncertainty of Daru, how is he to choose which action is right and what is wrong? Given the choice that Daru made in the end, does he do the right thing?

Each student not participating as a member of the panel was responsible for having at least two questions on each of these issues to ask members of the panel, thereby giving each member of the class both the freedom and the responsibility to act and react to the story, first by written response and then orally. I alone, except for the necessary guidance, was liberated from such a responsibility, restless though I was when the group got bogged down in sheer goodness.

How could I remain on the sidelines when one student bogged down the entire class by asking a member of the panel the meaning of the last line of the story: "In this vast landscape he had loved so much, he was alone."

How could I remain quiet when this same student, unsatisfied with the response to his question, requested the entire class to turn to two different poems in the text—poems only he had read—to help clear up the paralysis with which he had afflicted the class.

The one poem was "Loneliness," by Tu Fu and the other "Alone," by Herman Hess. He wanted to know whether or not the word in the last line of the story meant the same as the uses of "alone" and "loneliness" in the two poems.

How was I to sit still and not be able to at least whimper an "Amen" when throughout the 2 days of the discussion Camus's philosophy kept surfacing and resurfacing all from just the text of the story itself, and even more astonishing, when the students had no previous experience with such a philosophy. Though we, or I, were not looking for absolute answers to the two issues probed in the story, we searched and finally resolved that Daru's decision was to let the Arab make his own choice as to whether or not to be free. The question of right or wrong could not be resolved, though for Daru it might have been right. He had to live by the consequences of his decision, that of being alone and isolated in his own hostile community. This makes him a bit tragic.

The culminating activity was to have the students again respond to the story, this time to write whether or not they had changed their attitudes from their first written impressions. In almost every instance each student held on to his or her first impression, but with more depth, more detail, and more spontaneity.

Louise M. Rosenblatt said that a student should be encouraged to bring to the text whatever in his past experience is relevant, his essential awareness, his feeling for people and practical circumstances, his ideas and information, as well as his feel for the sounds and pace and texture of language. She did not specify what student, so I challenged an inner-city class with it, which took a dive

for it, and swam around with it because the water was running clear with it.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, very much, Mr. Lovelace; very eloquently put, beautifully put.

You teach a senior class, is that correct?

Mr. LOVELACE. Yes, sir.

Senator EAGLETON. Is your course a required course or an elective?

Mr. LOVELACE. One course is an elective, the humanities class, but the other course is required.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you comment on this observation. This came from Dr. Giamatti of Yale in his testimony. He states that English teachers preferred to teach literature, not writing, and thus the best English teachers are teaching the least writing.

Mr. LOVELACE. I think that all teachers should teach writing; all English teachers should teach writing really, even the better ones. How can one teach even literature without teaching writing and having the students respond to that writing. So every one should have the students respond in all of the areas of communication in teaching. You must write, you must talk, you, most of all, must listen, you must learn to listen, which in itself is really a skill. So, I think that all teachers should, including the professors, such as you mentioned.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, he was pointing out as a professor of English, now president of Yale, but he was pointing out that within his own profession less and less was being demanded of students insofar as actually writing their thoughts on paper; that more time was spent in verbal exchanges in the literature classroom with the teacher, as it were, questioning the student, the student questioning the teacher, on a verbal—in a verbal manner, as contradicted from the reducing of items to clear and convincing English.

Mr. LOVELACE. That is true, but there's an irony there, too. Students can talk in literature class—talk to rap, rather than talk with meaningful purpose; so rapping is really not teaching literature. The discussion must be a meaningful one; I think that's the problem.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you be surprised that even at Yale University, one of the most prestigious schools in the country, that they offered a writing lab course that could accommodate 12 people working with the teacher, and that 84 students at Yale, 84 incoming freshmen, very much wanted into that class that could only accommodate 12. Would that surprise you?

Mr. LOVELACE. No; it would not, because writing is not taught.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, we had some reference at an earlier hearing to some activities that are going on at Miami University of Ohio to improve writing competency among students and at Miami of Ohio, all departments—all departments throughout the length and breadth of the university, have been asked to stress the importance of writing, and a writing skills clinic was established, class size in English composition sections was greatly reduced. What comment could you give us on that policy at Miami of Ohio?

Mr. LOVELACE. I didn't get the last part of it.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, the president of Miami of Ohio, or dean, set a universitywide policy, that all departments within the

university would have to stress—whether it's geology or sociology or history, or whatever—would have to stress enhanced writing skills. They set up a series of writing skills clinics throughout the university, small classes, working on writing skills, et cetera. It became not the sole academic thrust of that university, but a very important part of the universitywide policy. How does that strike you?

Mr. LOVELACE. That strikes me as beautiful. I think the other disciplines should carry their part of the load, and, of course, it gives the students a chance to continue what has been taught in the English classroom. It is absolutely necessary.

Senator EAGLETON. Since you agree with that policy do you think at the high school level, your high school, do you think a similar high schoolwide policy would be useful there, that not only in your literature and writing classes, but in all the other classes that are given in the high school, that there be a heightened emphasis on writing skills in the other disciplines?

Mr. LOVELACE. I agree with that wholeheartedly and I would hope for it.

Senator EAGLETON. Has anyone, to your knowledge, ever promulgated that in the Chicago school system the superintendent or the board. Has there been any special attention focused within the Chicago public schools on writing skills, other than what individual classroom teachers are doing in their respective disciplines?

Mr. LOVELACE. Well, I'm not so sure. In the guides for the English curriculum I would say yes, but not in an integrative sense in all areas.

We do have a booklet called "Every Teacher is a Teacher of Reading", but I don't think anything has been really done about it. It's just there, you know, no one is held accountable for seeing that every teacher does teach reading as such.

Senator EAGLETON. In your own education, were you ever offered instruction in how to teach writing?

Mr. LOVELACE. I was not. I did take a course last year in how to teach writing, as a required course—graduate course. So I did take that; so several colleges have such courses now, but very few teachers take advantage of such a course.

Senator EAGLETON. How would this strike you? Would a statewide requirement that before any person could receive a degree in education, that he or she be required to take a course in writing and how to teach writing and that a competency exam in that skill be given to the prospective teacher before he or she graduates from a State teaching institution?

Mr. LOVELACE. I think that's a good idea because I think that a lot of the problem—I don't know about most of the problem—I think that in order to teach writing and to teach it well, a teacher should write well him or herself. In order to teach reading well, a teacher must do the same. Teachers too often do not have the time, the sacrifice—be they excuses or whatever—they get bogged down with paperwork or don't have time to do this or that—the teachers should be models. If the teachers want students to read, they should read. If they want students to write, then they should write. Because to understand writing, as I said, is to write. A teacher does

not, it seems to me, understand the problem that a student has with writing if the teacher does not write him or herself.

Senator EAGLETON. I will just point out for the record—I think I've done it at an earlier hearing or two earlier hearings—what got me interested in this whole subject matter a few years back was the fact that I would have the new Ph. D.'s come in to my office seeking employment. Ph. D.'s in history are a dime a dozen, and they were seeking any kind of employment in my office; there were other Ph. D.'s coming in as well, and when I asked them to supply something that they had written, I was absolutely appalled at the quality of their writing in certain basic fundamentals such as punctuation and paragraphing. Not one of them knew what a semicolon was or how to use it; lots of dashes, lots of free thought kind of thing. And it so stunned me that people who were very bright young men and women, verbally very articulate with fine academic records, A's and B's, and so on and so forth, but were absolutely atrocious writers.

I sort of questioned them about this and they weren't even very concerned. They sort of viewed writing as almost an arcane art and that what difference does it make whether they could write very well or not?

Have you had occasion to examine the writings of college graduates and formed any judgment as to the quality of that as young men and women graduate from college or get master's degrees and what have you?

Mr. LOVELACE. The quality is the same.

Yes; and the problem is the same. As you said, writing is not stressed that much and a lot of people make it without it. College professors agree—as I was attending a meeting at Harvard University last Friday, Commission on the Humanities, which I'm sure you're aware of—we tried to study ways to improve humanities in the school and the same issue came up. Colleges have the same problem that high school teachers have, that students cannot write, and too often too many of them are let out of college without being able to write. They just don't write and they make so many errors when they do write, and their instructors excuse is, as I said, you know, that there are just too many errors in students papers for us to grade. It's as simple as that.

Senator EAGLETON. In your view is English the main subject through which to teach values and ethics in the high school?

Mr. LOVELACE. I would say so; I'm not saying it couldn't be taught in other areas, but that's the main one.

Senator EAGLETON. Assuming so, by your affirmative answer, how can teachers become more concerned about making this use of it, that is, the use of the English language as the medium through which to teach values and ethics?

Mr. LOVELACE. By having the students write and probe, and I think values, of course, should be taught in parallels. You know, if you're going to teach something that is good, you have to have a parallel, teach something that's bad. If you're going to teach law and order, then you have to teach the parallel to that or what have you, so that the students can see the relations or differences, or what have you and let them make their own judgments in these

cases where they're exposed to different sides. As I said earlier, that's what education is all about.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, I believe you were present this morning when Dr. Farr testified?

Mr. LOVELACE. I came in a bit late.

Senator EAGLETON. All right. Now, in the reading area, rightly or wrongly, reading lends itself to testing; to computerized testing, numbers, things that can be pumped into machines. Maybe some of the test results are misinterpreted or misapplied, and Dr. Farr believes that that's the case. In this day and age of computers and machine testing, how do we computerize, if at all, such a subjective art as writing?

Mr. LOVELACE. I'm not so sure that it's an easy thing to do and I think that's part of the problem. How can you measure it, by whose standards do you measure? It's very difficult, and so the best I would say that one can do is to make sure that the student is exposed to a wide range of philosophies or what have you, or values and let him glean from that. If he can express what he feels, et cetera. So he can make judgments, his own judgments, I think then he has some of the tools that can help him survive in a world of mixed values.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, it's been a problem throughout all of the hearings that we've had, and I guess it will continue to be in the hearings yet to be conducted, that reading, and of course the same thing is true in math, you have all kinds of tests, putting things down in percentages and percentiles, all kinds of analytical statistical formats. But with the quality of writing, which is by its very nature so subjective that it's hard to formulate some conclusions on a national perspective. It is my own intuition, based on these young people that I say I have interviewed and I've read their written materials, to conclude that writing is in many respects becoming a lost art. Because it does not lend itself to these kinds of instant statistics, it doesn't get much mention in the academic literature. Oh, some, you know, with Dr. Farr's bibliography—and by no means is that a total bibliography on reading. Far more has been written and published in the area of reading skills, even far more in mathematics skills than has been in writing skills. I take it the main reason for that is it is so terribly subjective that it doesn't come out in any kind of a Willard Wirtz report, or any of these other reports and studies that have been made.

Mr. LOVELACE. That is true. Again, I was telling the dean of arts and sciences at Harvard last week that certainly some of the students that I have been teaching and demanding and whatever and I get results from, I'm sure their scores have improved, and I'm sure that they could make it through Harvard, with a few sacrifices. Sure, they'd have to study a bit harder in order to continue to catch up, and of course, he agreed, because he——

Senator EAGLETON. Was that Dean Rosovsky?

Mr. LOVELACE. Right. He agreed that this is being done, because the average student in the inner city has the ability, but too often he's not forced to be responsible or challenged. He's taught down to and not up to, but he does have a maturity once you put the pressure on, and indeed the pressure has to be put on for the average student, I'm sure anywhere, but especially in the inner-city

schools. And once they learn to think after the pressure has been put there, they're motivated for sure.

Senator EAGLETON. Just a week ago today we had a hearing in Boston where Dean Rosovsky was one of the witnesses and he pointed out that even at Harvard the quality of writing in his opinion has declined, and as part of the new, what they call core curriculum, which will begin to take effect in September of this year, there will be a much heightened emphasis on basic writing skills and here's, I guess, the most coveted academic institution maybe in the free world. The dean of that school, where they select only the brightest of the bright to come, finds that there was a decline in writing skills even among the elitist group of students. Pretty sad commentary on this facet of our hearings, isn't it?

Mr. LOVELACE. I think so.

Senator EAGLETON. But don't let those negative comments from me cause you to want to quit your profession. We need more Dr. Lovelaces to be working in the vineyards, and I'm delighted that you have come here today and testified. We appreciate it very much.

Mr. LOVELACE. Thank you, very much.

Senator EAGLETON. We'll take a short recess.

[Whereupon, at 12:45 the subcommittee recessed.]

[The subcommittee resumed its session at 1 p.m.]

Senator EAGLETON. All right. We'll go back into session. Our next witness is Mrs. Harriet O'Donnell, president, Chicago PTA.

Mrs. O'Donnell, we welcome you, and you may proceed.

STATEMENT OF HARRIET O'DONNELL, PRESIDENT, CHICAGO REGION PTA

Mrs. O'DONNELL. Thank you, Senator.

The Chicago Region PTA is most pleased to present a position statement at today's basic skills hearing. However, our statement may raise as many questions as it addresses.

We have read with much interest the "Basic Skills Fact Sheet" and copy of the title II legislation forwarded to us.

Our position traditionally favors all children achieving the basic skills being taught in our schools. The major dilemma raised is the question as to whether testing in basic skills for competency indicates that the student has mastered or learned the prescribed skills for practical application. Experience has taught us that administrators encourage teachers to teach to the test, and not necessarily for understanding and comprehension. Schools are constantly placed on a competitive basis and need to prove their programs through production of high test scores. No principal, or teacher, wants to show poor grades in comparison with like schools. In some cases it becomes personally expensive not to succeed by showing high scores.

One of the problems identified on your "Basic Skills Fact Sheet" was: "One-half of all unemployed youth, ages 16–21, are functionally illiterate."

We would ask a current interpretation of the phrase "functionally illiterate," as the Harris study was completed in 1971. Does it mean that our young people can read the baseball scores with comprehension, but cannot comprehend the editorial page? Does it

mean that he or she cannot read at all or that they cannot read a newspaper which is normally written at a fifth grade level?

Because we have interpretations that vary from community to community, the National and State of Illinois PTA favor local control. Thus, they have taken a position against national and statewide standards for competency testing for use as an evaluational tool in determining mastery of basic skills.

Shall we go further and ask the question: What was lacking in the school which causes youths to drop out either physically, mentally, or psychologically? Why don't they learn up to at least the third or fifth grade reading levels? Is the fact that they cannot read or function at basic survival skills responsible for their leaving school? What can be done for these functionally illiterate youth? Does society have an obligation to create basic skills programs for them? Will they be supported by welfare programs all of their lives because they are illiterate in a society which requires literacy for survival? Will competency testing prevent such an intellectual waste starting in the primary grades? Will the title program we are discussing today solve their problem, or is this another lost generation? We, as the PTA, are interested in programs for all children and youth. This group of young people, or youth, is shockingly large and they are here now. Have we explored their human needs, or are we going simply to list them ss statistics?

To compound the problem, we know that when children are programed into special or remedial basic skills classes, they are labeled as "dummies." Their peers feel they are different and tend to ostracize them, thus setting up a new social problem for the child. Such a social stigma tends to compound the learning problem and magnifies the original difficulty.

We all acknowledge that the lack of ability in basic skills has shown up when our young people apply for jobs, try to fill out the variety of essential forms required of us in everyday living, and when they attempt to follow basic instructions in job manuals. Business has been sounding the alarm for a number of years. School systems have turned a deaf ear, a deaf ear until the situation became critical and public awareness has finally been raised.

Last year parents in Chicago were shocked when thousands of them were told that their children were not going to graduate from grade school in June because individual reading levels were not up to predetermined standards. There was an immediate rejection of this Board of Education policy until it was explained to parents that, in the best interest of the student, additional time was needed to guarantee their future success in high school.

Invariably the questions arose as to why weren't the children able to read and how long had the school known that there was a problem? Did the report cards lie? Didn't the teacher recently tell them at a parent/teacher conference that the child was doing well? Yes, fingers were pointed at the system that had apparently failed their child. Fortunately we are fairly well past the pointing stage. We are still trying to inform our parents about the Chicago Public School policies and programs which we have been told will insure our children an adequate education in the basic skills in the future.

Let us look at the teacher portion of the problem. Honestly speaking, some of our teachers use such poor English themselves, both written and orally, that they should not be placed before a classroom of children. We know that some teachers have never taken an oral examination because they have taught successfully for years in the schools and therefore qualify for certification. This practice should not be allowed to continue.

Annotated composition and exercise papers have become a thing of the past for many teachers. Recently when interviewing teachers for a Dedicated Teacher Award, we were impressed by one teacher who grades every paper for content, spelling, style, and grammar—how rare these days. Will legislation encourage this type of excellence or merely test the end result of the learning/teaching process?

Our research has shown that teachers are required to take only 3 hours of reading as a course in preparation for teaching. As a PTA organization, we have been on record for years as asking colleges and universities to include remedial and developmental reading courses in the curriculum of the future teachers. How does one teach a subject, such as reading, without having the fundamental instruction himself?

Teachers must be drawn into these proposed programs very early in their development. When programs are superimposed upon teachers without adequate preparation, most times they are rejected. As we have mandated more and more curricula upon our teachers, and increased the paperwork accordingly, our teachers have less and less actual teaching time during the day. It seems as though every new program brings with it the numerous charts, cards, forms, and tests. Where does the time come for the teacher to work with the individual child to accomplish the basic skills teaching we all desire so much? Do all the charts, forms, and tests make the teacher teach any better, or the child absorb any faster, or with more comprehension?

Please, somehow insist that any program proposal keep the actual application of the program in the classroom at its most essential level—essential in the minimization of extraneous paperwork. We need the teachers' cooperation and not their resentment.

Some school districts have a way of developing programs in an office. They appear terrific on paper. The application of the program then becomes unwieldy and produces insidious mountains of additional paper and reports.

An avenue that was formerly open to many students in years past was summer school. Summer school provided many children with the extra time they needed to either brush up on particular skills or to repeat them entirely if necessary. Unfortunately, financial cutbacks have eliminated this support program, except in the cases of more dire need at the eighth grade or graduation level. We need financial assistance to provide summer school programs for all children who either need or desire them.

We were pleased to read in Public Law 95-561 that parental involvement has been included. Section 206, titled "Parental Participation in Basic Skills Instruction," states that you have provided for the development of materials to train parents so that they may assist their children in the acquisition of basic skills.

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I would ask you to consider who is going to prepare these materials? Will it be left in the hands of the professionals or will parents have a role in the material preparation? When will this training take place? Who will provide it?

Today, in a large city such as Chicago, many of our children come from homes with two working parents, or a single parent who has other young siblings to care for in the home, or parents who may be barely literate themselves. We hope that provisions will be made for evening and weekend training sessions, moneys for babysitting, and general assistance for the parents in conquering their own illiteracy. We are also living in an age when children are having children, and many of our young mothers have not completed high school themselves. If these young parents are to rear children competent to graduate from high school, and be admitted to colleges and universities, we will need an enormous amount of assistance.

In section 22(11)(d), you state that parents should be included in the development of programs for their children. I hope that they are truly involved. Too many times we have found that parents are appointed to committees as window dressing, and their input is dismissed by the professionals. You should receive independent feedback from parents who are elected or appointed to the committees so that you might personally determine if your legislated intent has been carried out. Let me assure you that when parents, who are usually the last ones to know, become aware of the seriousness of the problem they will react and then act.

Our final hope for this program is that it will not turn out to be a repeat of the failures of past programs. The prime failure has been the lack of continuity and support for the student. Because of having been identified as below level, the student is entitled to special help. Their competency level is then raised to a bare minimum of acceptance. Then they are dumped out of the special program to flounder again. These identified children must receive support programs until they are well beyond the accepted level of competency so that they may continue to succeed and not fail again. Repeated failure becomes a way of life for these children until they give up and leave school altogether. They may not leave the school physically, but mentally they leave us and simply exist in a seat until they are old enough to leave the building for good. In Chicago that is at the age of 16. Some of these children who have been just existing in a seat for years are part of your unemployed youths ages 16–21 who are functionally illiterate.

To conclude, we hope that your program is an enormous success and that no parent or child will hear again that there will not be a graduation because the student cannot read, write, nor compute.

Thank you, very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, very, very much, Mrs. O'Donnell. You obviously have put a lot of thought into this testimony, and it is very useful and has made a fine contribution. I have a few questions.

Page 1, you raised the vexing question, What is functionally illiterate? I don't know whether we will come up with a universal definition of functional illiteracy; you're absolutely correct, it means one thing to one person and another thing to another

person. The best illustration that I can think of, and I guess this is my homemade definition of functional illiteracy, was that very interesting lawsuit that was filed out in San Francisco, if you read about it. It was filed in a pseudo name, *Doe* v. *San Francisco Public Schools*. Parents of a high school graduate student sued the public schools under the theory of breach of contract because they gave a graduation diploma to their son and when the son went to get a job as a clothing salesman, he could not adequately read the personnel form that he had to fill out, nor could he read a credit slip or fill out a credit slip, and thus was unable to get the job as a clothing salesman in a men's clothing store. To me, that's functional illiteracy. I don't know whether that suits the definition that an academic might have insofar as functional illiteracy, I know not. But that's sort of my homemade rule right there.

Mrs. O'DONNELL. There are two different types of testing that we are seeing and one is more or less survival skills, for society, those skills such as being able to figure out your checkbook, and so forth, and then there is the academic testing that we're also being inundated with at this point. They do mean different things to different people, and whether they should be combined or kept separate, is a question many people are asking us.

Senator EAGLETON. And it's a question that deserves an answer. Maybe we'll come up with one. You emphasize in your testimony parental participation and you cite some of these Federal statutes where we allude to parental participation. This may be another example, I'm sad to say, of where we have some nice words in the statute; we're all for parental participation, think it's just marvelous, more parental participation, and it's just there in the book, the statute book. How would you go about implementing the pious hope of enhanced parental participation? How do you think that should be done by the Chicago Public School System or the Kenilworth Public School System, or Evanston, or what have you?

Mrs. O'DONNELL. First of all I have found that in a good many cases parents that are involved in the programs have been handpicked. They have been handpicked for a variety of reasons. They're either known to the school administration in the local school or at the higher echelon within the school system, or the fact that they have been out there making a lot of noise, and that happens too.

I would suggest to you that there is a whole group of parents out there that are vitally concerned about their children, but because they haven't surfaced for one of those two reasons, they're never included. Perhaps the opening of the doors in a meaningful manner by school administrators would encourage parents who may not have the academic labels behind their names, but have the willingness and concern to be involved. Those are the folks who really will put in the time and the effort. They may not have Ph. D.'s or B.A.'s, but their concern as parents has been ignored to a large degree.

I have also found that many times committee meetings and the inner workings of those groups are scheduled at very inconvenient times for parents. Today we live in a serious economic situation, and parents will have to be involved in the evenings, on the weekends, and when they can be involved. We can't help it if the school

system works 8 to 4; parents work 8 to 4; and I hope there would be some accommodation here for true involvement, not just the tokenism for those who can be free to do it. That's one of the problems, that we have seen. We have not seen followthrough with development of programs. We've seen a little bit of tokenism initially, and then when the final draft goes in, the parents very frequently have never seen that final draft of the proposal. They've never been given the timeframe within which to do a proper analysis, and they can; they are perfectly capable of doing it, and having the input.

Senator EAGLETON. So we have it for the record, where do you live, Mrs. O'Donnell, what system or——

Mrs. O'DONNELL. In district 299, Chicago; I am a product of the Chicago Public School System; so are my two children, and I live on the near northwest side of the city.

Senator EAGLETON. Are you familiar with the program that's called PUSH; we had Reverend Jackson here as a witness this morning.

Mrs. O'DONNELL. Very much so.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you have any comments on the program?

Mrs. O'DONNELL. Yes, we're working together; as a matter of fact we've done an outreach back and forth from both organizations, realizing that in some of the cases we have the structure—some of the structure as a national organization—PTA—and they have some of the people. We feel that the combining of the two efforts for children is what it's all about and we're right there with them. Reverend Jackson and I spoke just a little while ago. His new director is going to be in touch with us to work with us. We have parent involvement from the same schools that they have the Excel program.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you care to involve yourself in this debate as to the use—the impact, of television as a source of good or evil in today's society?

Mrs. O'DONNELL. Are you referring to the National PTA's TV violence or are you asking me as an individual?

Senator EAGLETON. Well, answer it in your public hat and then put on your parent hat.

Mrs. O'DONNELL. Of course at the national level, the PTA has taken a position against the violence on television as being detrimental, and it's been documented over and over again. I was part of the original group of parents that were trained in how to teach parents about television violence programs, and I was appalled at what we had become accustomed to as part of programing on television. We viewed a 10-minute filmclip and were asked to fill out a form on not only the civil rights violations but the physical violence, the threats, the entire thing, and I was surprised to find that I had become inured to these types of things, and if that's what I had experienced myself, realizing that I had reached maturity, I can certainly see the impact on youth.

Now, of course, we're upset because they've substituted the bedroom for the living room on TV, and that is not making the National PTA very happy either. As far as Chicago is concerned, I've been very pleased about the fact that public television and our newspapers in particular, have worked hand in hand on reading programs and television programing, and particularly at the high

school level for the youngsters. I think this type of thing can be expanded, and that we as an organization have been promoting it. The newspapers have been printing the scripts of some of the shows that have been recommended and the teachers are working with it. I would hope this type of programing would continue and that we—PTA—will support it again.

As a parent my children are both older now, both out of high school and they did not have the benefits of "Sesame Street" and "Electric Company". I wish they had. What TV is doing beneficially, I was doing back then, as a parent. I think the two should still stay in tandem—that the parent must help augment what's on television, but I'm sorry that I had my kids that many years ago. I wish they were small now and could reap those benefits.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, I think that's very well put.

I guess it was the day we had Mr. Wirtz, or the night before, I think "Julius Caesar" was on PBS—or "Romeo and Juliet"—and he cited that as an example of where television could be a marvelous teaching tool, the perfect tool for Mr. Lovelace, for example, to have assigned his class the chore of watching "Romeo and Juliet", and coming in and discussing it and writing a theme on it or something like that, and that caused Mr. Wirtz and myself to be temporarily upbeat. Then we went downbeat because we guessed that nationwide that viewing audience was maybe 1 percent of the country, or 2 percent at the top, saw "Romeo and Juliet," the viewing public, and 98 percent watched the network cleavage hour—ABC, NBC, CBS, the age of Freddie Silverman—and that caused us to be a bit sad. But television could be a great, absolutely magnificent incomparable teaching tool, you know, could be a source of great enlightenment. Mr. William Paley, the chairman of CBS, the founding father and guiding genius of CBS, has just published his own autobiography and in that book he recommends that each network for 2 hours in prime time ought to do something that is intellectually stimulating. He said that it is necessary that each network do it because if only one did, that show would lose the entire audience to the other two. It was interesting for me to note that his proposal was instantly and summarily rejected by NBC, by ABC, and even by his own hierarchy at CBS, and what a sad comment that is.

It's been suggested in some testimony that we've had at these hearings, again from Mr. Wirtz and also from the witness we had in Boston last Monday named Jonathan Kozol, that large numbers of volunteers could do a great job in helping solve the problems of literacy in this country if parents would be used in significant numbers to augment the work of teachers in reading both during the school year and in the summer. In your opinion—would you care to comment?

Mrs. O'DONNELL. They are being used now, but the large numbers that are being referred to are not available these days. In our own school system we have a program called the "TU Read Program," a tutorial program in which parents are asked to become involved and trained as volunteers. It's been an interesting phenomenon that in some schools we've had a lot of parents volunteer and the school administration and the teachers are not really interested in having them come in and work with them. I have

seen entire faculties take a vote that they don't want volunteers in the school. They view it as a threat; they view it as an interference. In some cases the administration may also take that point of view.

We also have the problem today of the fact that there are many more opportunities for parents to be involved in the school system and less and less parents around to do it. And we as an organization are suffering through the same things as almost every volunteer organization, that people tend to put a time and money figure on whatever it is they have to give. The volunteer was the undergirding of this Nation, and this really is being threatened in some cases.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, very much, Mrs. O'Donnell; we appreciate your being with us this morning.

Since Dr. Farr is still with us, Dr. Farr, if you don't mind we'll send to you a transcript of our first day of hearings and ask you to make any comment on that transcript when you receive it. We had three witnesses the first day; we had an author named Paul Copperman, who has a new book called, "The Literacy Hoax." His solution to the reading problem, if indeed there is a problem, and he thought there was grave problem, was classroom discipline. If you just beat enough kids over the head, they become readers. Now, that's a gross oversimplification, but that was the tenor of his remarks.

The next witness was Dr. Flesch, author of "Why Johnny Can't Read," a best-selling book in the midfifties, and he said, yes, there is a problem, and it's very easily solved—back to the phonics—and if everybody went 100-percent unadulterated phonics, that would solve the problem.

The last witness was Mr. Howe, who was Lyndon Johnson's Commissioner of Education. He said, yes, there's a problem and the way to solve it is in good old Franklin D. Roosevelt style, more categorical Federal programs, and that would tend to solve the reading problem.

Now, I probably haven't done any justice to any one of these three witnesses, but we'll send you the transcript and if you wish to comment on any statements in that transcript, we'd be delighted if you would.

We will now have a panel of school principals: Father Paul Smith of the Holy Angels School; Mr. William McNerney, Beasley Academic Center; and Mr. Don Moran, Grant Elementary School.

We'll start with you Father, your opening statement, and then Mr. McNerney in the middle, and then Mr. Moran.

STATEMENT OF FATHER PAUL SMITH, HOLY ANGELS SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Father SMITH. Senator Eagleton and members of the committee: I am happy to be here to speak specifically of the success achieved by Holy Angels School, that is noted for its back to basics program which began in 1970, when the notion was not so near popular.

Holy Angels School represents and embodies the undaunted spirit of the inner-city poor whose need and thirst for survival motivates and nourishes it. The school is situated in the Nation's largest socioeconomically depressed area and draws its students from five low-income Federal housing projects: Ida B. Wells, Robert

Taylor, Lawndale-Prairie, Madden Park, Stateway, and Washington Park, encompassing approximately 90,000 black people.

The school truly reflects the community it serves. It was built to educate 500 students and now has an enrollment of 1,250. The buildings are old and in constant need of repair. There is always the want of financial assistance to shore up a budget that is devastated by waves of unforeseen emergencies.

Nonetheless, Holy Angels School has been able to achieve unparalleled success which has been framed by network TV and trumpeted from the pages of the Nation's outstanding and reputable publications, including: The Wall Street Journal referred to—"Black Catholic School in Chicago Thrives Where Others Failed"; Time Magazine—education section, "A Gift of Jobs"; Newsweek—"Black Schools That Work"; Ebony—"The School That Beat the Odds"; Chicago Sun-Times—"Holy Angels: A School that Works."

The cause and occasion for this high achievement are three: The children themselves, who like all other children are ready to learn; the parents whose anxieties, born of negative experiences, spur the child's innate abilities; and finally, the teacher's faith in the child and dedication to his academic growth. Because time is limited and I want to give time to my fellow panelists, I will speak mainly to the first element in our success.

Studies have repeatedly denegated the innate ability of the inner-city child observing that while he begins on par with his suburban counterpart, the inner-city youngster retrogresses as years advance. Holy Angels has devised a program that reverses the process and produces high achievers. The initial step required the slaying of favored concepts posed by ivory towered pros whose clinical hothouse results and pronouncements control the curricula and programs current in many of the Nations's schools. Prime among that, homogeneous grouping is always condemned. Homogeneous grouping, however, makes larger class sizes possible and manageable; moreover it more closely reflects the community environment, quite foolish in a community as overly impacted as ours to insist on class sizes of 20, 25, and 30.

From the towers we hear complaints that the slow learner, in a homogeneous grouping then, is deprived of the assist given by the brighter student. Too, we hear that it's psychologically unsettling to say to students that here are the bright students and here are the less clever. Our experience is that parents of bright children send students to school, not teachers; and every parent expects his child to be taught and have his potentials fully developed and adequately challenged by the teacher. And further we observe that every child recognizes already the varying degrees of academic ability. We pose further, that a class of 20 students of varying abilities requires many levels and groupings, increasing the workload of the teachers.

We have also found that a concentration in reading and math that utilizes one series throughout the entire school, is extremely beneficial because the skills are constantly reinforced while expanding.

Attached is a graph depicting the steady improvement in these areas of our school over the past 7 years. This graph compares the ITBS scores of the past 7 years and gives a picture of the school's

standing in comparison with the Nation. There are those who argue that a standard test, such as the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, is a poor instrument to measure the progress of black students because the tests are culturally foreign to him. While this position had some merit, it must be noted that the black child must, in later life, compete in the same cultural system composing the standardized test.

There is, in the science of learning, an objective body of truths that must be assimilated by every mind that seeks education. Basic realities are the same for the ghetto child as for the suburban. So is the measurement of the level of mastery of these basics. It is, therefore, the concern of Holy Angels School to seek out or create the means to raise the achievement of its students, in the fundamental skills, to a competitive level, while guiding and supporting their spiritual and psychological growth.

Our program, concentrating as it does on achievement, tends to alleviate, not unintentionally, early school dropout patterns, juvenile frustrations, and adult unemployment with its resultant dependence on welfare and compensation by crime. Thus, the Holy Angels program through a concentrated and extended academic year—11 months—actively encourages a high level of student effort.

Specifically, emphasis is placed on the teaching of skills at each child's level of readiness. Accelerated groups lead the self-motivated student to master advanced material; standard groups drill on basic skills; smaller remedial groups encourage the underachiever and slow learner.

Each student is taught to continue his formal learning in his home, reviewing and drilling on concepts taught or researching related material. Parents are expected to help with and ascertain whether or not each assignment is completed. The elasticity of our leveled program also tends to eliminate the hopelessness of the laggard as well as to intensify the eagerness of the achievers. Consistent progress, teacher evaluation, and test results are the determinants for moving a student from one level to another. Thus, it is possible and common for a child to change levels within the regular academic year.

Our leveled program, we feel, tends to accelerate achievement and lead the student to value academic excellence as a means to full and valuable life.

Academic excellence is a long-standing tradition at Holy Angels. In 1977 the Chicago Sun-Times named Holy Angels one of the two best grade schools in the city, and in recent competition among 74 black elementary schools, Catholic, Holy Angels received first honors.

Our program is strong in the area of discipline directed at the growth of self-control. There is a nightly homework; there is a time for silence; a time to play; a time to cavort; and a time to walk in line.

The second causal element in our program is a cooperative, involved parent organization. We call it the parent educational effectiveness program.

The parent agrees at registration to attend all parent/teacher meetings and conferences. Failure to do so would result in the

termination of the student. The school makes certain that the teachers are available and that the meetings provide the parent with professional direction and counseling, inviting nationally prominent speakers to address the group. The meetings usually attract between 800 and 1,000 in attendance.

The third and final influence in our success is the teaching staff. Working for a minimal salary our staff is constantly sacrificing and making the whole program work. There are a group of young volunteers fresh from college who have joined ME-WETA, our version of the Peace Corps.

We believe that these three elements working together help make Holy Angels School the success that it is.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, very much, Father Smith. I have some questions but I think I'll hold them. Can you stay with us a little while longer and we'll hear from our panel.

Before calling on Mr. McNerney, let me put in the record an editorial that appears in the St. Louis Globe-Democrat; parenthetically, despite its name, it is a devoutly Republican newspaper that has never endorsed me.

In any event, the editorial is dated March 1, 1979, entitled, "Back to the Basics All the Way," and it mentions Mr. McNerney quite prominently in the editorial quoting him, "We have no need of remedial programs; we just have regular-sized classrooms with good teachers. The pervading atmosphere pays off as discipline problems are few," says the editorial:

> Because of its high standards and policy of sending disciplinary problem pupils back to their former schools the Beasley Center at times is referred to as St. Beasley. With an enrollment of 1,041, only 4 pupils have been returned to their old schools since September.

So it's a very laudatory editorial of you, Mr. McNerney, and the Beasley Center, and so it will be placed in the record before your testimony.

[The editorial referred to follows:]

ST. LOUIS GLOBE-DEMOCRAT
March 1, 1979

Back to Basics—All the Way

An all-black elementary school, across the street from a housing project in Chicago, is proudly offering an outstanding example of providing high quality public education. And this accomplishment is being achieved without accepting a single cent in federally funded programs.

William C. McNerney, principal of the school called Beasley Academic Center, explained: "We have no need for remedial programs. We just have regular-size classrooms with good teachers."

The desire to learn is found in every classroom. It's strictly back to basics, with the principal allowed to select two-thirds of his teaching staff. The successful formula has the eager pupils reciting, memorizing, drilling and taking tests with time limits. After school hours there is regular homework in various subjects.

Stern discipline ranks high and nonsense is not tolerated. Chewing gum is prohibited and candy cannot be brought into the building. A dress code requires children to be well groomed and dressed appropriately in neat and clean clothing.

The prevading atmosphere pays off as discipline problems are few. Because of its high standards and a policy of sending disciplinary problem pupils back to their former schools, the Beasley Center at times is referred to as "St. Beasley." In an enrollment of 1,041, only four pupils have been returned to their old schools since September.

The center is unique. It has no enrollment zone, and 350 of the pupils are bused from other districts in the city. As a result pupils attend Beasley because of parental preference. To get a child into the center parents are required to sign a contract to abide by the school's rigid policies and to see that all homework assignments are done. If a child shows up in class unprepared, the parents will hear from the teacher.

Daily attendance at Beasley probably is the best of any city school. In October it was 97 percent, but the heavy snows reduced attendance to an amazing 94 percent during January.

Educators can learn a valuable lesson from Beasley. Instead of putting their foot down on discipline and supporting teachers in the classrooms, some administrators have gotten fat and lazy by looking to governmental funding as the panacea for every educational problem. Discipline is a tool of good teaching, along with classroom order and respect for instructors.

Social promotion and grade inflation are feeble attempts at camouflaging the failure of public education. Still the single-track mentality continues to prevail. The National Education Association and White House are pushing relentlessly for the creation of a cabinet-level department of education that would further hide school shortcomings by pouring greater sums of federal funds down the same old drain.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. McNerney, you may proceed.

STATEMENT OF WILLIAM C. McNERNEY, BEASLEY ACADEMIC CENTER

Mr. McNERNEY. Senator Eagleton, and members of the committee: I am happy to be here today. I am a principal of the Beasley Academic Center; I've been a principal in an inner-city school for about 14 years. The school I'm at now is a very interesting and a very unique school, and I have a short statement I'd like to make about the school.

The Beasley Academic Center, located at 5255 South State Street, across the street from a housing project and in the heart of one of the poorest areas of Chicago, is a clean, quiet, orderly school.

Students are applying in increasing numbers to come to Beasley, a school which emphasizes basic instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Beasley first opened its doors in September 1978 as a back to basics school which required regular homework, a dress code, good attendance, good behavior, memorization and recitation, phonics, drill and practice, and competition.

One of the keys to this school is a contract signed by each parent agreeing to our school codes. Beasley is a magnet school which accepts students by application. Those who do not comply with our school codes may be returned to their local schools.

Since Beasley is such a new school, there are no test results yet to show how well the students are doing in reading and math.

But some things can be seen. Our daily visitors attest that Beasley is immaculate; there are no marks on the walls; the halls are spotless; there is no vandalism. The students are friendly and courteous. Homework is assigned and completed regularly. Attendance is outstanding—probably the highest in the city.

The morale of the Beasley staff is unsurpassably high. Teachers come early and stay late; they take work home; they help students before and after school.

Parents are involved; they see that homework is completed. They attend PTA meetings in large numbers. They visit the school regularly.

We encourage competition at Beasley. We have spelling bees, math contests, poetry recitations, essay contests, et cetera. We expect competition in every classroom. We insist upon timed tests. We believe in trophies, ribbons, stars, and any and all means to reward success.

Will we get results? Yes. We are well on the way to becoming one of the finest schools in the city. Already, we find parents sending their children to Beasley from all over the city. We expect this rend will continue and will grow. The only recommendation we can make to insure more effective Federal spending for education in the future can be summed up in two words: reward success.

Senator EAGLETON. And let the record show that Father Smith nods vigorously in approval. I'll hold my questions, as I said earlier, and we will hear from Mr. Moran, who is the principal of Grant Elementary School.

STATEMENT OF DON MORAN, GRANT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Mr. MORAN. Senator Eagleton, members of this committee, thank you for allowing me the opportunity to participate in this program, or this hearing.

I am the principal of Grant Elementary School, a Chicago public school, located in the inner city on the near west side. As a matter of fact it is so inner city that I didn't receive Mrs. McCord's last mailing yet, but I found out by having inner city extra sense where the meeting was being held and what to do, so I made it here this morning.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, very much.

Mr. MORAN. There is no doubt that there is a need for basic skills programs in school systems of this country. The evidence is overwhelming. The basic skills fact sheet sent out by Senator Eagleton spells out the need clearly. The Chicago public schools, even though we are gradually showing evidence of improvement, our student achievement in basic skills are a long way from what is desired and acceptable.

In my own school the need for basic skills is overwhelming. We have, in my school, doubled and in some cases tripled the time allotted for teaching reading, math, and the communication skills.

Senator EAGLETON. For the record, Grant Elementary is not a magnet school; it's a traditional neighborhood elementary school?

Mr. MORAN. Traditional neighborhood elementary school; 1,500 students, K through 8, and all of the students feed from housing developments.

However, we have not eliminated the arts, physical education programs, and other subjects that develop the whole child.

From my experience, let me outline just a few of the things that I feel can help to make a basic skills program successful, and, I might add, that many of the things I have listed here, before I even read the bill itself are in the congressional bill on basic skill centers.

No. 1, built into this program there must be constant development of the student's self-image. I have listed that as number one because everything else falls under that, to my mind.

Two, the program must be designed to insure the success of the child. Every child should feel hope constantly.

Three, the teacher, which is the key to the success of this program, must be dedicated to basic literacy. The teacher must be the kind of person that truly believes that everyone can learn, given the time and exposure.

Four, counseling should be a main component of a basic skills program. The students should be constantly encouraged and have a clear understanding as to their special needs and why they were placed in the program. A class size in a basic skills program should be no more than 15 in order to be most effective.

Five, parental involvement should become a reality; parents should receive special training so that they are able to help their children with their schoolwork at home. Special learning activities should be designed specifically for parents.

Six, a contract plan should be developed. Students, then parents and school officials should enter into a written contract specifying standards of performance.

Seven, the administration must wholeheartedly believe in and fully support the program.

Eight, evaluation should not be on peer comparison. Norm reference testing is of little practical value in competency based instructional programs. The student should only compete with himself, not his peers.

Evaluation should be summative. This is where students and evaluation should be concerned about how well the students did on clear, predetermined performance criteria. In today's educational jargon, this is known as criterion referenced testing.

Nine, most important, basic skills centers must be funded in order to operate with maximum effectiveness. Half funded programs are usually ineffective and a waste of Government money. When building the Air Force airplane, I don't think we'd cut the funds in midstream if we truly want a superior airplane. I think the same is also true in education.

Senator, I fully support the bill funding basic skills centers throughout this country. Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, very much, Mr. Moran. Your recommendation as to classroom size of 15, are you saying that that's what the size should be at a basic skills center, or that should be the standard classroom size throughout the length and breadth of the public school system?

Mr. MORAN. Basic skills centers, or schools involved with basic skills programs.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, we put in the record, I think, that in Chicago the standard classroom size in elementary is 30 and in secondary 32. Now, you mentioned the word "competition," Mr. Moran, and you said that the student ought to compete only with himself. I think I hear something different from Mr. McNerney. He said his school puts great emphasis on awards and trophies and other indicia of achievement. Do the two of you disagree or am I mishearing—mislistening here?

Mr. MORAN. Let me answer; I don't know if we disagree or not because I have some of the same things going on in my school that he has, in terms that I was specifically referring to youngsters that I feel have been identified and need special help in basic skills programs. For instance, in terms of youngsters who have been identified and selected for these programs, it means that they have had low self-images in most cases. They've had lack of success, and those students who are barely making it, unmotivated, are the youngsters that I feel, especially beginning in the basics, really need help and I'm speaking primarily in the elementary school. I do feel that they should be evaluated in terms of their own progress rather than in comparison with other students' progress.

I don't think I disagree with Mr. McNerney in terms of the normal or average child in terms of the competition.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. McNerney, would you comment?

Mr. MCNERNEY. Well, I don't know. I suppose that there may be some area of disagreement there. I would agree completely with the idea that students need some success, whatever students, and

they need success every day; they need to be rewarded for that success, whatever it might be, and I don't think they should be put down in any way. On the other hand, there are certain tests that are given that are normal and that are here to stay, as far as I can see. Now, maybe if the "Iowa Test of Basic Skills" were going to be removed, or if I thought that that wasn't significant or wasn't important, or that nobody would look at them, or children wouldn't be aware of that or their parents wouldn't, or the parents wouldn't be insistent upon having their children tested against some norm to see how they are doing in relation to other children, maybe I'd feel differently. I think the "Iowa Test of Basic Skills" or something similar is here and so we are definitely and purposely and specifically stating that we are interested in developing the competitive atmosphere and we are encouraging students to compete and we are encouraging a lot of time tests and we hope that they would be successful. I don't mean that if they're not, though, that they should be put down; I think that they do need a lot of encouragement along the way—maybe if we talked it over——

Senator EAGLETON. Father Smith, would you care to comment in this area of competition or rewarding recognizing achievement, trophies and the like? Do you agree with Mr. McNerney or disagree?

Father SMITH. I agree with Mr. McNerney. I do believe that students do need the incentive, the goals, to strive after. Parents need to see what progress the children are making, but I don't exactly agree, you know, the expressions sound very negative that the student should be put down. I think the student should be realistically told, "You're not up to snuff." Now, if that means a putdown, then the reality of functioning in this world—a student has to be able to accept the fact that, "I'm not up to snuff and I should do what needs doing to get there." I don't think that we should just go out of our way to give ribbons and medals to everybody. If you do that overmuch, the medal counts for nothing; the ribbon means nothing. I think there has to be degrees of success and it should be recognized. I like the notion of "a student should compete against himself," but he must also be made to understand that competition is a part of his future life and he who functions better on the job gets the promotion; he who functions better gets the pay raise; and we are basically preparing children for life.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. McNerney, what's the greatest distance that a student at Beasley travels to get to your school?

Mr. MCNERNEY. I don't know exactly, but it's a number of miles.

Senator EAGLETON. How does the student get there Does the Chicago public school system——

Mr. MCNERNEY. The students are bused.

Senator EAGLETON. They're bused. It must be quite a bus route, I mean, if it's a magnet school it draws from a large radius.

Mr. MCNERNEY. Yes, it started out as a magnet school within the district and then it just tended to spread little by little, really word of mouth, it hasn't really been advertised citywide, and so it just has grown and tends to grow in certain areas here or there and so it is a fairly large program of busing.

Senator EAGLETON. I'll ask this of all three of you. I won't repeat it, I'll just go down the line and get your response. This is something that troubles me.

Let's assume that we had many more Holy Angels—schools that are attracting students and parents because of the quality of education that is offered at Holy Angels. Let's assume we have many more Beasleys; again attracting both students and interested parents. And then let's assume that we have, pursuant to legislation, many more basic skill centers; let's assume utopia. That we have all of these things. Who is left in PS 182, and what do we do with those residual students because of nothing that they've ever done wrong, because of the divided household—whatever reason, that youngster doesn't get to Holy Angels or to Beasley or to a basic skill center, so that that youngster just goes to PS 182.

Father SMITH. Well, my response to that is that PS 182 is supposed to be Holy Angels, or Beasley, or a skill center. If we're going to fund schools, those people who underwrite those schools have a right to expect quality education. Parents should not have to go hunting for alternatives to the public school. The school system that they underwrite in justice and morally has an obligation to do what we do. They have an obligation to be the best they can possibly be to provide the child with what he needs to succeed.

Mr. MCNERNEY. Yes, I can envision that, and I've thought about that and I think that certainly such a school that you talk about would want a lot of programs, a lot of things that could be worked with those children, a lot of extra help, small classes, and all kinds of extra help. The other thing, though, I really think there are a tremendous number of parents who would like the alternative that, for instance, Beasley represents. There are a large majority of parents who want to see a school where discipline problems are minimal and it's true, at Beasley discipline is not a major consideration and very little time is spent on discipline problems. I think that represents the vast majority, and I think it would be a good thing if we would encourage the increase of a whole number of schools where this was the usual and customary thing and normal, and then perhaps whatever other schools might be there to accept those that were not there, in Beasley or Holy Angels, or whatever, I'm sure there would be an awful lot of extra assistance perhaps that should be given there.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Moran.

Mr. MORAN. Let me just clear up something. My school is not a basic skill center on a local level. We implement what we call as basic skills program at the school, and that involves some of the things I talked about here, because in my mind every school, every school no matter where, should be aware of the needs of that youngster in the school. In my particular school we found out that the needs of the youngsters were basically reading, writing and communication skills. The State gives us a certain time criterion supposedly for teaching the subjects. We changed the time period; we allotted more time where it was needed, less time where it was not needed. In other words, we improvised the program at Grant School which, is a regular Chicago public school, using a basic skills program philosophy.

When I mention a class size of 15, I know we could do a much better job with the smaller class size naturally. I think also the key, again, is a dedicated teacher who believes that everyone can learn, and believe me that's the basic key, because many people walk around with the philosophy that these kids can't learn, and that's a copout, or we don't have to teach those kids.

Again, my school is located, as I said, in one of poorest areas of Chicago and we got a lot of national attention from some of the things we do; we do involve parents; we do develop materials for those parents to work directly with their kids, and its shown that it can work in a regular school.

Senator EAGLETON. Father Smith, in your testimony you repeatedly used the word "grouping"—grouping of students. In the St. Louis public schools back 15 years or so ago they had what was referred to there as the track system. They had three tracks, an accelerated track for high achievers, a sort of standard midlevel track for students that fit into that track, and then track 3 for low achievers, and with special emphasis given to students within that track. It became a cause celebre as being inherently discriminatory, because at least 15 years ago it turned out that in track 1 there were more white students than black; in track 2 I think it was 50-50; in track 3 it was predominantly black with a few whites, hence, it was alleged that was racially discriminatory.

In your use of the word "grouping" is that comparable with the tracking system that I've described?

Father SMITH. Comparable, but every classroom has groups; you're going to have to group your students. What we argue is that in a school that is really serving your community you're going to have to accept many students, and if you have a class size of 25—even with 25, if you have to teach in a class of 25 students and you're running the gamut from very bright to very slow, then the number of groupings in that one class will be many, whereas if the students in a classroom could all be grouped similar to a college situation where everyone in there is able to deal with the lecturer that comes at them, so if we could homogeneously group these students, and we do, we can put 40 students in a classroom and the preparation for that one class is far less than for a class of 25 or perhaps even 50, because the teacher is teaching to one level of student. It works very effectively in our school because the large numbers are not adversely affected.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you care to comment on that, Mr. McNerney?

Mr. MCNERNEY. Well, I am not sure that I know the answer to that. I certainly—in a way I prefer to have grouping for reading groups, some grouping for math, perhaps, but to have some diversity, some range of students in a classroom, it seems that—I think it's true something was mentioned earlier here today about students identifying certain rooms as being slow rooms or something like that, and there is some advantage in having a mix of students, and I know that for a while during the year we had some title money programs, in a particular case in the seventh grade, it was necessary because of the guidelines to have, for instance, a specific seventh grade class that became a class involving the lowest achieving students and I think that tended to be detrimental, and I

think that the teachers at that level decided that they would revert to a spreading out of those students to different classes and I think that would be an advantage.

Senator EAGLETON. You have to keep your voice up, we have a little competition outside here.

Mr. Moran, would you care to comment?

Mr. MORAN. Yes, I agree with Mr. McNerney. First of all at my school we used to group homogeneously, that was about 6 or 7 years ago. First of all I found out that we never could get a homogeneous grouping no matter, even comparing test scores and that sort of thing. Second, we decided that—we found that youngsters learn as much in many cases from other youngsters as they do from teachers, and we started a program where we have students student-tutoring; we found that to be very, very helpful. Many times youngsters with a reading problem or with a math problem, don't mind another youngster helping them to understand that problem and many times teachers will tell me that some of their students can explain it better than they can, and somehow the students seems to get it over better than they can, to the child who has a problem understanding.

Also, we found out that many of the so-called slower youngsters had a lot to offer them too; we found that to be a positive effect. Because we had the same problem you did, identifying groups; that pervaded the school and presented real negative feeling on the part of those students in the so-called slow group.

Senator EAGLETON. Father Smith, I've got a couple of questions just for you. What percentage of the students at Holy Angels are Catholic?

Father SMITH. Oh, about 67 to 70 percent; we hope growing.

Senator EAGLETON. Is that percentage growing?

Father SMITH. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. We have some situations that in other urban areas many non-Catholic parents are taking their youngsters out of public school, or the public school system and enrolling them in the parochial school system without any religious affiliation but because they think that there's a better quality of education in the parochial school. But that's not the case with you?

Father SMITH. Well, we are getting large numbers of non-Catholics. We don't make an issue of it. We find that most people when asked the question, "Why would you, a Baptist, register your child in a Catholic School?" The response is usually not the quality education but just usually that they believe that in Catholic schools, the paddle has not been removed from us and some other things. They believe that we have a stronger discipline program, although that is not necessarily true.

Senator EAGLETON. I think there is that belief out there, however.

Father SMITH. Right.

Senator EAGLETON. What percentage of your teachers are Holy Angels are religious versus lay?

Father SMITH. We have approximately 13 nuns, and the rest of 65 staff or layfolk.

Senator EAGLETON. What are your salary levels as compared with a Chicago public school teacher?

Father SMITH. We pay approximately $3,000 less than the going rate in the public schools. We have a volunteer program that I mentioned. Students work for a stipend.

Senator EAGLETON. $3,000 less; what's the typical salary of a lay teacher?

Father SMITH. Beginning about $7,000—about $7,000.

Senator EAGLETON. About $7,000?

Father SMITH. Beginning.

Senator EAGLETON. Does Holy Angels have any kind of academic test that one must take to screen out the applicants?

Father SMITH. You mean the incoming students?

Senator EAGLETON. Yes, the incoming students.

Father SMITH. The incoming students are required to take the Iowa Test and they are placed on the level of our students. If they are applying for the fifth grade, they must achieve the score of our minimal fifth grader in order to be placed in that grade.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you have at Holy Angels any remedial reading teachers, that is teachers specifically trained to assist youngsters with any reading difficulty the youngster may have?

Father SMITH. We have the federally funded title I or title II, but it creates a problem because a student is supposed to be remedial and our program is geared to eliminate the remedial student, so the title I program is grossly unfair in that it does not provide an opportunity for the gifted student. It's a very negative approach to the inner city because it says that the only funding that will be given is for the remedial child; nothing is done, as Mr. McNerney says, to award success or to encourage leadership in the inner city. For the bright gifted student there are no Federal funds to encourage or to develop his leadership capabilities.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, I think that's a fair comment. The problem is, of course, that even with the Federal Government some think there is an unlimited amount of money available. There are even finite limits to the Federal Treasury, and so a policy decision was made, rightly or wrongly, to try to concentrate the Federal supplemental funding for disadvantaged youths, et cetera, and that does leave behind, in a sense, the high achievers. I can't say that that isn't the result, but I'm just saying that with a finite amount of money, the decision was made to target it.

Let me ask this of all three of you, just a brief answer going down the line.

We had testimony today about competency testing at the twelfth grade level and what have you. When, in your opinion, should the testing of a student begin to see what his or her achievement is as a reader or in math?

Father SMITH. I think I would have to agree with Reverend Jackson that at the very onset, because we homogeneously group, we would have to know how and where to place this child, so I would say at the very onset and right on.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. McNerney.

Mr. MCNERNEY. I agree. Testing at the very beginning is very helpful and I know there is sometimes too much testing being done, and I don't know if I agree with that, but from a practical standpoint I know we do have an awful lot of testing. Our reading resource teacher is constantly giving the regular Board tests and

also publisher tests, and this just seems to me like a good way to find out what's going on in the classroom. For reading, for instance, we can find out, when you give a test before the children move from one unit to another in the textbook. You test them and you find out if the children are strong generally and they are doing very well, well that says something about what happened in that classroom. And if you find that there are weaknesses in certain areas, and that area may be comprehensive, it may be sequence, it may be contractions, it may be a whole number of things and we find that coming up—we find it with an individual and you can very easily sit down and have a conference with the teacher and say well, what happened? Was this person absent or weren't they getting the concept? Or if you find it happened generally in some area then you can easily ask the question well, what happened to your teaching? What was going on, or how did you present this, and I think it uncovers an awful lot of things in teaching and you certainly wouldn't want to dispense with that.

Mr. MORAN. I agree with my colleagues. We begin testing in kindergarten. I think Mr. McNerney stated it all.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. McNerney, what's the pupil-teacher ratio at Beasley?

Mr. MCNERNEY. It's the regular Board ratio that was mentioned earlier.

Senator EAGLETON. I see. Well, thank you, all three of you. You have been fine witnesses and we appreciate it very much. Thank you.

Our final witness today will be Dr. Joseph Hannon, The superintendent of schools for the city of Chicago.

Dr. Hannon, you may proceed.

STATEMENT OF DR. JOSEPH P. HANNON, GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT, CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Dr. HANNON. Thank you, very much, Mr. Chairman.

Thank you for giving me the opportunity to outline for you today the direction that the Chicago public school system is taking in providing basic skills of communication for all the children entrusted to us.

I'd also like to include in the testimony as to material that includes basic skill information, a promotion policy that the board of education has adopted, and also a new discipline policy that's been adopted by the Chicago Board of Education.

The prime objective of the Chicago public schools, as stated in our systemwide goals, is: "To guarantee student achievement in the basic subject areas." To that end we have developed a program that spans the student's life from preschool years through high school graduation. Assessment of need, teaching to meet that assessment and evaluation of results are continuous processes that involve teacher, student and parent in an active commitment to educational improvement.

Let me briefly mention to you some key components of this ongoing comprehensive endeavor:

A preschool program for 3- and 4-year-olds at 25 child-parent center sites and 103 headstart sites throughout the city. This program works with parent and child to start at an early age, and in

an orderly progression, the learning of oral communicative skills in a social setting.

Continuous progress mastery of skills in reading and mathematics that permits the student to learn incrementally skills and concepts at his or her own pace throughout elementary school.

Intervention strategies that permit early identification of language arts and computation problems with immediate programs to render assistance. Such intervention approaches include:

TU-READ

A small teacher ratio program now operating in 202 schools that focuses upon the strengthening of those skills in reading in which the individual child shows greatest deficit. Tutoring is done by volunteers, cross-age tutors and teacher tutors. Intervention is made at the early intermediate years as soon as a need is manifested. Volunteer tutors assist students for three 40-minute periods per week. Teacher-tutors meet with small groups of students for five 40-minute periods each week.

INTENSIVE READING IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

Approximately 172 specially trained teachers are assigned to 186 elementary schools to work with teachers and students to improve the delivery system and the skill acquisition in reading.

INTENSIVE MATHEMATICS IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

This is a program similar to the reading improvement program operating in 68 elementary schools with 68 mathematics resource teachers.

BOTH IRIP AND IMIP EMPHASIZE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES

Reading laboratories are set up in 36 elementary schools and all high schools to give the student an individual and customized program employing media to aid in communications improvement.

A COMPREHENSIVE TESTING PROGRAM TO ASSESS NEED AND EVALUATE PROGRESS

To this end there has been progressive and consistent growth in citywide reading test score results over the past 3 years. It is interesting to note that students in the lowest quartile, quartile 1, are progressing as well as students in other quartile ranges.

PROMOTION POLICY

Students who show a reading deficit in the elementary school are programmed to remain for the summer or even an additional year with intensive assistance in reading skills improvement before entering high school. Last year some 15,000 students were put through a summer school program. The student in high school who, after taking the proficiency skills test and proficiency skills courses repeatedly without success is counseled into the general

education diploma program for completion of high school requirements.

A differentiated curriculum in 11 languages designed to permit the student to learn basic skills and content areas in his or her native language while also learning English.

Good teaching is an integral part, certainly, of any worthwhile program. To this end, inservice for teachers is provided through a network of curriculum coordinators, multidistrict meetings, meetings with teachers at the school level and citywide courses conducted by teachers and for teachers with lane placement credit attached.

Learning must be a commitment on the part of all concerned; teacher, parent, student and administrator. Only by concerted effort and a genuine partnership between school and home can an environment be created that stresses excellence, continued school attendance, low absenteeism and a growing desire to master basic skills.

Chicago is on course and wants to continue forging ahead in this most vital and fundamental area of education.

If we are going to make it, however, we must reinstitute the work ethic in our society and especially in our schools. Teaching is hard work; learning is hard work. The "store" was almost given away these past 25 years. We told parents and children that if the schools were provided with air conditioning, carpeting, fine lighting and other physical features, that somehow, by osmosis perhaps, learning would take place.

It never happened; the contrary occurred. Mediocrity began to permeate our schools, especially in urban America; we became shy and intimidated by our children, by our communities, and by our society in general.

Shirking of responsibilities dominated our ranks. The so-called three R's and mastery of them gave way to the easy way—don't rock the boat and don't make our kids work—it may upset them.

As a result, thousands of children left school with minimal skills and lack of proficiency; in short, they were unable to be productive in our society.

I believe we have bottomed out; the future looks much brighter. A more rational framework is being woven. Many of our programs are proving successful; our children can, do, and want to learn.

Access to excellence, the plan adopted by the board of education of the city of Chicago to improve educational opportunities in desegregated settings, includes basic skills. There are centers in each of our districts with thousands of children participating this first year of the 5-year plan with many additional students to be included in subsequent years.

The cities need help desperately. No other generation in our history has had so much asked of it. Our new urban citizens have been thrust into strange, unfamiliar surroundings without the skills, tools, or help to meet and survive the challenges. We are all new cities, the big cities; the demographic changes that have taken place reflect the greatest migration in our Nation's history; and this has occurred in the shortest period of time. The impact on our schools has been enormous—thousands of children with bilingual

requirements and even countless more thousands with basic communication and urban survival needs must be served.

Local school districts, including Chicago, have a unique opportunity and responsibility in that the children are here. They are not statistics; they are people. They are in our classrooms; or on our city streets if we fail to meet their needs.

In Chicago, we are able to see the light at the end of the tunnel. Our many-faceted programs designed to improve the basic skills of our students are indeed beginning to show results.

What Chicago needs are funds to broaden and deepen programs that are already in place and to develop new programs. Also needed are funds to expand programs designed to develop the kinds of leadership called for in our new urban centers.

Local autonomy and decisionmaking with greater flexibility in the use of fiscal resources will enhance our ability to infuse the skills into our children and to provide the qualities of leadership essential to the success of our efforts.

We are encouraged, indeed, that you, Senator Eagleton, have given Chicago an opportunity to be heard and, that you have brought your committee to our city to see for yourself. We welcome you and we thank you for your interest and concern. We look to your leadership in carrying the message of the big cities to the U.S. Senate. Thank you, very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Dr. Hannon. You have been a fitting concluding witness to today's testimony because you have given us an overview as it were, from the perspective of chief school administrator of a vast public school system. I think you told me when we were chatting before we began that the Chicago public school system was the third or fourth largest employer in the State of Illinois, or what was that?

Dr. HANNON. That's right, it's the second largest employer in the State of Illinois.

Senator EAGLETON. Second largest employer in the State of Illinois.

Dr. HANNON. That's correct.

Senator EAGLETON. How many employees?

Dr. HANNON. About 50,000.

Senator EAGLETON. Fifty thousand. Now on page 2 of your testimony you mention intensive reading improvement program; 186 elementary schools and you have 172 specially trained teachers. So it is less than one per school, right?

Dr. HANNON. That is correct.

Senator EAGLETON. What's the typical enrollment of a Chicago elementary school?

Dr. HANNON. Well, they vary; I would say they probably average around 800 students, but they vary anywhere from perhaps a low of 300 to a high of 1,500 to 1,600.

Senator EAGLETON. Wow. So, let's take your average of 800. I think it would be conservative to say that 20 percent, and I think that would be a very conservative estimate, of the 800 students at a typical school might need some help in reading. Yet you've got less than one trained specialist per school. What can he or she do with those statistics?

Dr. HANNON. Well, one of the things they can do and they are doing is to cull out very, very early those kids that have the needs, and in addition to those teachers that are there, and in addition to working with the students, they're also working inservice with the staff of the school itself, so it's the old Lancastrian model, so to speak, that the teacher then becomes a teacher to other teachers over a period of time and this increases their value as reading specialists, but it's a dearth, no question about it.

Senator EAGLETON. Does this reading specialist, or this specially trained teacher, sometimes work with parents, volunteer parents or whatever, who in turn might work with students who need some help.

Dr. HANNON. They do at various schools, especially at the lower level. The child's parents enter him in the Head Start Program and I think there's even a greater working relationship with parents. I think as you go up through the elementary grades you see a diminution of parents' work and it's the kind of thing we have to do a lot more of.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, you mentioned the improvement at the bottom of page 2 of the reading test scores in the lowest quartile, et cetera. Where do you think the testing ought to be done, at what grade level, in order to assess and evaluate progress, et cetera?

Dr. HANNON. Well, I think it's got to begin at the very, very beginning, and it is. Our reading program, frankly, is an ongoing testing; it's an individualized program so that extremely early, at kindergarten level we're starting to talk about early intervention of these children. They can't get away from you and so we think this should begin early. It's just one means; the diagnostic aspect is more critical really than what has been accomplished perhaps.

Senator EAGLETON. Page 3, promotion policy and summer schools, and what have you. You mentioned the figure 15,000 summer students. Was that 15,000 eighth graders who went to summer school?

Dr. HANNON. That's right. We initiated a very strong promotion policy about 1½ years ago and said that social promotion was going to come to a screeching halt, and so last year, at just about this time, we said that eighth grade students who were not up to passing the minimum scores, would be equivalent to the eighth grade, would have to stay in the summer school program. We mandated that; the students came in and we had an extremely successful element as a result of it, and most of the students then went on to high school.

In addition, to that, I might add, there has been a tremendous amount of spinoff this year because the promotion policy is also reducing the sometimes cavalier attitude that kids at the eighth grade level tend to take. They realize they've got to toe the mark a little bit better.

Senator EAGLETON. What was the total number of eighth graders, so I can get what percentage 15,000 is of what.

Dr. HANNON. I'll have to guess on that; it was very close to perhaps 40 percent of the students in the school system, and I'll get that figure for you.

Senator EAGLETON. OK, and I'd like to have it.

Now, is that the only summer program that is offered in the Chicago public schools, that is, this 15,000 eighth graders, or are there other summer programs for other students at other grade levels?

Dr. HANNON. There are approximately 65,000 students that went to summer school last year. Prior to 1975 we had the largest summer school program in America, and it was funded chiefly from the State of Illinois. The State of Illinois stopped its funding in 1975 and we literally were only able to take care of the special handicapped children and children who were going to have to go to summer school in order to graduate from high school. So that last year, we decided that in spite of a great deficit, we'd start our program again. A spinoff on that one, also, is that children in school are not only learning but they're reducing a lot of the inner city problems that can occur by being on the street during the course of the summer; it's a real tragedy that the big cities can't be operated 12 months a year, but again it's the dollars that more or less dominate what we're going to be doing.

Senator EAGLETON. Did the State of Illinois cut off or turn off the funding? I take it that was because of fiscal constraints and not because of disenchantment with the concept of summer school, or what is the case?

Dr. HANNON. Well, I think there were a lot of things and very candidly I think that the big cities throughout the Nation, at the Federal level and at the State level, there has almost been a systematic dismantling of the big cities over the last few years, and I think at the State level, the priority that was made was made outside the realm of minority children in our State. We have about 80 percent of them. In my judgment it was a wrong move to make, but—and I question certainly the wisdom and also the altruistic intent of what was done.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you find that teachers are eager to participate in summer school programs? Assuming, of course, they will be paid for so doing.

Dr. HANNON. Well, you're assuming correctly, they certainly will be paid, and I think it's never a problem to get teachers; the problem we've got certainly is the way to give them resources that are required, but summer school is something we've got to come back to very strongly

Senator EAGLETON. If the testimony that we've had at these hearings is to the effect that the earlier on one diagnoses and detects reading deficiencies, the better it is in terms of working with that youngster to improve, et cetera. If that testimony is accurate, why do you wait to the eighth grade to do this testing with summer school being mandated. If the student doesn't achieve, why don't you do it at the third grade level, or fourth grade level?

Dr. HANNON. Well, the thing is it's starting; we have to start somewhere, and again we don't have any dollars at all. We felt get it started, get it implemented, and you're absolutely correct. Really our reading program is starting at a very early age level and our promotion policy is going to move all the way down to the first grade, but we had to go where we thought the greatest thrust was.

Senator EAGLETON. What if anything is the Chicago public school system doing to enhance writing skills?

Dr. HANNON. Well, part of our whole communication arts program, frankly, is geared very much to the writing skills. We recognize that what has occurred throughout this country has been magic in the reading, yet the ability to put pencil to paper perhaps is the greatest single problem that we have right now. We included that in our basic skills program, and as I was saying earlier, learning is hard work and teaching is hard work because it means to a great degree that rote is going to have to be introduced and far more time on task, and we're doing that at the earliest grades.

One of our problems, frankly, is like anything else you need strong supervision, you need teachers that are committed to do it and you need an understanding that the children are going to be disciplined appropriately if they don't do what they're supposed to do. But I go back to my original statement, Senator, and that is what has permeated us for so long, and not just in the city, but perhaps throughout, is that school should be very, very easy and we shouldn't be working those kids too hard. I think we've turned that around.

Senator EAGLETON. The Florida Legislature passed what they call the Teacher Accountability Act that required teacher applicants to pass a competency test measuring general performance and knowledge of a specialty. Have you had a chance to think about that and any comment on the Florida approach?

Dr. HANNON. Well, I've seen the Florida approach and I've seen some of the things they've done in Dallas and other cities. We have our own certification requirements here in the city of Chicago in which before teachers can come on board they must pass the minimum scores. I would say very candidly I think we have to increase the competency, but one has to remember also that not too many years ago we were out trying to find teachers, as many teachers as we possibly could. A great number of minority teachers in affirmative action programs did not have the opportunity to go to the universities that the nonminority teachers went to and so we literally lowered our certification to stay within the very strong affirmative action. These are young teachers and we better work very closely with them until we bring them up to snuff. I don't mean just minorities, but a large number of our teachers were brought into the urban setting from way outside.

Senator EAGLETON. Some of the testimony we've heard today before this committee decries the back-to-basics movement as ignoring the more advanced skills such as learning to think correctly and dealing with complex ideas. Do you share some of the concerns of these witnesses that back to the basics is too simplistic an approach?

Dr. HANNON. I would share with them if that was indeed the case, but I don't think it is the case. I think really what we're saying is that one must be able to have the basic skills before they can go on and do some of the other elements that are required. No, on the contrary, I don't think it's that; you may get an extremist, but I think an extremist in any one of the programs is going to take you out of the playing field, so to speak. We need the basic skills, but I also think you'll find, on the other side of it, that the

gifted programs in many degrees are stronger than ever before and that's certainly indicated in our desegregation program.

Senator EAGLETON. In a book entitled "The Miseducation of American Teachers," by James Koerner, the author states, "the teacher's salaries are the principal obstacle in improvement in teacher training." Would you care to comment on that?

Dr. HANNON. Well, again, I think you heard testimony here and across the country that I think it's greater than that. I think salaries are very, very important, but I still think that the magic that takes place is going to be to the committed individual at the principal level, the teacher level, the administration level, and I don't think that we're talking really in terms of the dollars on that aspect. I would say to you that I think we should pay our people very, very high. I think our people should be paid the compensation commensurate with what their responsibilities are, but I again shy away from anybody who is able to take this huge, complex society of ours and put it in very simple kinds of terms. I think we're talking about something perhaps even greater than a salary; we're talking about the work ethic that we almost threw away; we're talking about certain commitments that in the last two decades have been reduced in terms of putting the kinds of needs in the classroom, so I think I shy away from those fellows who are making a pretty buck writing, but I'm not so sure that they're coming up with the answers—the day-to-day thing. The people you see here as principals and teachers will tell you that it's more than what makes Sammy run that's making the magic in those classrooms.

Senator EAGLETON. Just so we have it for the record, I think Father Smith said that a beginning elementary teacher at Holy Angels, has a salary of about $7,000. What would be the beginning salary of an elementary teacher in the public schools?

Dr. HANNON. Approximately $11,000.

Senator EAGLETON. $11,000.

Dr. HANNON. Yes, sir.

Senator EAGLETON. How is Father Smith able to attract qualified teachers, and his test scores indicate that things are going reasonably well at Holy Angels, with a $4,000 differential?

Dr. HANNON. And it's probably greater than that as he stated about time, it's probably greater than that. I think again, there are a whole host of answers; he alluded to one of them, having to do with the fact that at least there is a greater perception of discipline in some of the schools. He said the qualitative aspects were perhaps about the same, and one of the reasons we've initiated a very strong discipline policy at all levels is to provide safety of environment for our staff and for our students and to those kids that are not conducive to participating positively in the learning environment, then we take the necessary action against them. I think we've been intimidated because again in the last not too few years perhaps, we've had such "Spockism" perhaps that has been to not hassle any of our kids and we've kind of shirked some of the responsibilities.

What he is doing in that school is remarkable. He also is selecting students that come in; he also has the clout of throwing them out if they're not behaving. As you know we take each and every

child where we find them and we're doing a very good job of it, I might add.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, Dr. Hannon, thank you very, very much; your testimony has been very useful and a special thank you as the host for today's hearing. It has been a very, very useful hearing and I'm delighted that you made these facilities available to us. Thank you, very much.

Dr. HANNON. It's our pleasure, Senator, and thank you, very much.

Senator EAGLETON. That will conclude today's hearing.

[Whereupon, at 2:35 p.m., the subcommittee recessed.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

TUESDAY, MAY 22, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES,
COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Washington, D.C.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 10:04 a.m., in Room 4232, Dirksen Senate Office Building, Senator Thomas Eagleton presiding pro tempore.

Present: Senator Eagleton.

Senator EAGLETON. Good morning, ladies and gentlemen.

The Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities of the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources is now in session to continue its hearings relating to basic skills.

We are pleased to have with us Congressman Scheuer from New York who will introduce our witness.

Mr. SCHEUER. Thank you very much, Senator. It is a great pleasure to be here with a shining luminary from my district. Dr. Bob Schain is a homegrown New York City product, educated in the local public schools, got his Master's and his Ph. D. in our local school system from Teacher's College Columbia and from NYU. He is a product of the New York City school system, worked his way up the ladder step by step coming to be chairman of a social studies department in a school and finally principal. So he has had both administrative and substantive teaching background.

We hear so many of the failure stories today that we begin to be despondent and concerned about the small likelihood that many of our kids are teachable and can achieve reading, writing, counting, and other skills necessary to make it in American Life.

Yet here is a school principal who has done just that. His school is a success school, and it is an all minority school. It is an all black school. It proves that it can be done.

Now, what we have to figure out is what are the structural elements of that success. We have to carve apart the totality of that success to identify the individual components of that success, and, if possible, design a package that can be replicated.

Now, unfortunately, we cannot clone Bob Schain. I wish we could. I wish we could clone Bob Schain and a few other remarkable school administrators and school leaders around the country like him, but it is hard to clone dynamism and it is hard to clone leadership. Maybe someday science and technology will bring us to that point, but in the meantime we have that kind of a leader, that kind of a dynamic, thoughtful, creative leader here who can make it happen, who has both the sensitivity and the hardnosed administrative capability to make it happen, and I leave it to him to

describe to you the components of success, and I hope that he will isolate and identify the individual constituent elements of his remarkable success so that leaders like you in the field of educational legislation can try to draft legislation that will create a properly fertilized ground soil for that kind of success.

So it is with great pleasure that I introduce Bob Schain, principal of the George Wingate High School.

Senator EAGLETON. Before we hear from Dr. Schain, Congressman, let me say this. You may wish to depart our midst because I know you have other duties to fulfill. I think your introduction was as glowing an introduction of any witness that I have ever had before any committee on which I have served, and that is noteworthy in and of itself.

Second, I think you are absolutely right. We hear all of the bad news, and bad news is what makes headlines. In order to put things in a good perspective, we ought to hear all the news, good and bad.

From what I know about Dr. Schain and his undertaking at the Wingate High School, his is a noteworthy success story, and so these hearings strive for some modicum of balance, and that is why we are delighted as you are to have Dr. Schain here with us today.

I have a modest opening statement that I will read rapidly, and then we are going to have an excerpt of a film that deals with Wingate High School that appeared as a segment of the multipart CBS portrayal of basic skills or shortcomings in the educational process, and then after that, we will then have the testimony in chief from Dr. Schain.

Congressman, you may feel free to leave whenever you want. However, I am not trying to get rid of you.

Mr. SCHEUER. I will stay a few minutes. I want to hear his opening remarks, and then I will sneak off.

Thank you, Senator.

Senator EAGLETON. Over the past 4 months, we have heard from educational theorists, researchers, college presidents, superintendents, principals, teachers, and parents about the decline in achievement in elementary and secondary school, a decline which is now extending into higher education as well. Virtually all witnesses have pointed to improved achievement of children in the grades 1 through 4, but beyond grade 4 test scores begin to drop. This seems to indicate the schools are doing a good job with the very basic skills of simple decoding and elementary computation skills. But application of those skills to more complicated and sophisticated problems and ideas appears to be faltering.

In response to a growing national concern about the quality of education, last year Congress authorized a new basic skills program under title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. This new program, with a modest funding recommendation of $35 million does not seek to provide funds to every school district across the country to beef up their basic skills programs. On the contrary, it is designed to identify districts or individual schools within districts which have developed, or show promise of developing, exceptional programs in basic skills.

This concept of identifying exemplary programs is not new or revolutionary. Past Federal programs have done so but with a

conspicuous lack of success. What sets this new program apart from past efforts is its recognition that programs must be designed at the local level, not dictated from Washington, and its emphasis on coordination with other programs within the district, evaluation and replication. Both the U.S. Office of Education and the Congress have a great opportunity and concomitant responsibility for exercising leadership through this program. Through the vast network of Federal education programs, we can alert virtually every school district in the country to educational triumphs in similar settings.

This morning the subcommittee will explore the factors behind one such success story. Wingate High School in Brooklyn, N.Y., has been called a "born-again school" in New York Magazine and a "model of a modern urban high school" in the New York Times. Virtually all of the credit for this acclaim is given to Dr. Robert L. Schain, its principal. I am delighted to welcome Dr. Schain and have him share with the subcommittee his formula for success and his recommendations for imitation of that success in other school districts and other schools across the country.

And now we will have the film.

Dr. SCHAIN. Senator, this is an excerpt from a three-part CBS program in August of 1978. Walter Cronkite was the anchorman, Charles Collingwood the reporter, on the program called "Is Anyone Out There Learning?" This is a 9-minute segment featuring Wingate High School and its success.

Senator EAGLETON. I might add that I have seen all 3 hours. CBS was kind enough to make the films available to us, and so along with Mr. Smith and Ms. McCord and one or two others, we, one evening, watched the full 3-hour film show, but this is just this one segment.

[Whereupon, the motion picture segment referred to was shown.]

Senator EAGLETON. Dr. Schain, we welcome you and you may proceed.

STATEMENT OF DR. ROBERT L. SCHAIN, PRINCIPAL, GEORGE W. WINGATE HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

Dr. SCHAIN. Senator, may I first introduce some people who are here, and I would like to recognize their presence. First, my lovely wife and daughter. Then some colleagues of mine representing national organizations, Dr. William Spady of the American Association of School Administrators; Mr. William Drews of the National Association of Secondary School Principals; and Mr. Bill Langston of the AFL-CIO Education Section.

Senator EAGLETON. We welcome all of the visitors.

Dr. SCHAIN. I think in order to deal with what the committee is interested in in terms of improving education, we ought to, obviously, understand that the concept nationally is that the schools have failed in the 1970's and so I would like to paraphrase my written statement in order to emphasize certain aspects of it.

The question is why have the schools failed in the 1970's, and I think basically it was because the educators failed to act despite the fact that signs that appeared in the 1960's of impending trouble.

We had the rising urban unrest, the Vietnam war, the increasing number of minority students coming into our cities, and so forth.

But unfortunately, educators usually wait to react rather than to act, and therefore, when the problems hit in the 1970's, they just were not prepared and they tried a number of bandaid approaches, all of which were doomed to failure.

As a matter of fact, there was an old copout or several copouts. The first copout was, "Why blame the schools? It is society's fault. How can you expect the schools to do that which society itself has failed to do?" They also blamed the kids. "These kids cannot learn, or get the few bums out of the schools and the rest of the kids will be fine. Give us more security guards."

They also began to grope for "solutions." Faced with problems of disruption, alienation, and so forth, they tried anything that came out. They tried open classrooms, programed instructions, peer group activities, relevant or socially oriented courses, and so forth.

But these did not help, and the school's troubles increased as the 1970's wore on because the bandaids just failed to stop the bleeding. It was just about that time that I became principal of Wingate High School. I began my service as principal on June 15, 1970, and believe me, this was a school that had all the problems of the stereotype of an inner city high school.

We had truancy, drugs, cutting, disruptions, poor academic achievement, low morale, loss of community support, racial conflicts. You name it, we had it. As a matter of fact, one of my colleagues, I recall, came over to my home shortly before I was assigned to Wingate and said, "Please do not take this school. It is a heart attack school. It is ungovernable."

Well, it was ungovernable, and I found that out quickly enough. But I can say, and as the film has shown, that today we have one of the finest schools in the country. It was difficult, and it was long in coming, but I would like to discuss at this point some of the factors that helped produce this turnabout.

First of all, there were no bandaid approaches. I did not buy any of these palliatives or any of these sudden cures. There is no such thing as learning how to play the piano in five easy lessons. To draw another analogy, I certainly felt that it was useless to put oil of cloves on a sore tooth. I would rather find out why the tooth hurt and work on the cause. That is what we did.

To do that, we had to organize staff, students, parents, community leaders. All of us had to work this out together. While we were beginning to work it out, the school was still in chaos. And so we had to stop the decline as quickly as possible. Immediate measures. Students had to understand that there had to be discipline.

Most of my time the first year was spent on hearings with students and parents who had been involved in disciplinary violations. Happily today I hardly have to spend any time on that. We have a positive disciplinary situation.

The staff at the beginning had to be convinced by actions not by what I said that I was supportive and I knew what I was doing. They had enough of people who were letting the schools drift, and parents and community who had seen the school go right down the drain were really waiting. Their attitude seemed to be, "Well, let us see. Show us before we give you any support."

So we set up a process, and I always believe that a sound process will produce a sound product and progress. The process is very

simple. You can read it in any management book that has ever been written, and that is, involve everybody in the decisionmaking process. In doing that, you commit everybody to whatever is going to be worked on, and it is their program not yours.

Of course, I must say that while the decisionmaking process involves everybody, students, faculty, parents, community, the decisions are mine. But I have found that a group working on a problem responsibly usually comes up with sound recommendations which I can accept and implement.

I felt we could turn the school around if everybody worked on the problems. We would find out what the problems were. We would examine what alternatives we had to deal with them. We would then select an alternative that seemed to be most promising and work out a program based on that alternative. This would involve preparation, curriculum, development staff training. We would monitor programs as we went along to see where we were doing well, where we were doing badly. I was convinced that such a process would lead to improvement and that all the discipline, truancy, cutting, underachievement, and so forth would decline. In turn, we would have a school with an atmosphere of positive discipline where youngsters behave because it is the thing to do, and also a school with positive academic achievement.

I think it is noteworthy to point out as the TV show noted that Wingate High School, a building 25 years old—we are celebrating our 25th anniversary this year—a white brick building with 46 outside doors, none of which can be barred by fire laws, does not have one mark on it, no graffiti inside or outside, no broken anything, no vandalism. The youngsters treat this building as their own.

Now, once we organized the staff, the students, the parents, we then began to work on the basic problems. Why are students disruptive? Why are they cutting classes? Why are they not coming to school? And we found some very interesting answers. We found that many students could not read. They were functional illiterates. Now, what can a student do in a high school class if he cannot read? He cannot study social studies which is textbook material. Similar problems would exist in English, science, and other subjects, and we said, "Well, let us see what we can do to make these youngsters more effective in reading."

We set up a special minischool which dealt with students with that problem specifically, youngsters who where functional illiterates. By the way, this program has done fantastically well, fantastically well. But that is only one reading program.

There are other reading problems. There are youngsters who are reading below grade and need help, and we have individualized reading programs for them. We also know that everybody needs help in reading, and so we set up a program that trained the staff so that every teacher began to use his subject to teach reading.

Let me give you a brief example. When I was taught to teach social studies, nobody taught me how to teach kids how to read. That was a given. When they came to my class in history, they knew how to read. I would assign work for the next day, that is, these pages, these questions. When they came to school the next day, Senator, we knew they were prepared.

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Today, that is not so. It is simply not so. Now, a teacher of social studies will say, "How am I going to teach social studies? The kids cannot read." I say, "Well, let us teach the kids to read through social studies." Teachers would reply, "I do not know how to teach kids how to read." Then we had to teach him how to use social studies to teach kids how to read. And we did. It was a year-long program with the Wingate Teacher Training Institute.

As a matter of fact, the rationale was simple. We said, "You know, if you can teach kids to read through social studies they are not only going to learn how to read better but they are going to learn social studies much better." And it has worked.

We have exported our expertise all over the country. We are training staffs in schools over the Nation.

We discovered that another problem involved many of our students who could not speak English, foreign-born students. They would have problems that resulted from their language difficulty.

Accordingly, we set up a special bilingual program, a very sophisticated one, more so than what was provided by the Bilingual Education Act. One of our innovative programs was the Wingate English Academy which was based on the Israeli Ulpan. And Senator, if you have ever been to Israel, you will find they have a very effective way of taking immigrants and teaching them to read, speak, and write Hebrew so that they can function in Israel. We did that with youngsters here who could not speak English.

Then, of course, there are many programs that address themselves to needs. For example, we found youngsters coming into the ninth grade from the lower schools, "turned off." They had had 8 years of failure, but every year they were promoted to the next grade, based on the principle of social promotion.

They came to us with a record of failure. What do you do? We could let them drift and keep failing, but we did not. We set up a special program called the alpha program, which was designed to find out what these kids really are interested in, and every kid is interested in something. Once we find that out, we then gear his 10th, 11th and 12th year programs based on that interest.

To cite another example of a "needs" program, we had youngsters who were superannulated, who had been in high school for 3 or 4 years and were still in the 9th or 10th grade. They were sure dropouts.

Well, we set up Wingate Prep which gave them a chance, if they worked hard, to get a diploma within 1 year. And you should see those kids "turn on" when they saw the real possibility of a diploma.

These are "needs" programs, but we also set up the kinds of programs that turn kids on to education. We found out, for example, that there are kids who like medical science. They want to be doctors, dentists, nurses, lab technicians, and we set up a complete medical science program. It is in its fourth year now, and youngsters are serving as interns in hospitals in their senior year. Excellent. Excellent.

We have a flight training program that you saw in the film, a legal institute, a radio and television institute, a printing program that has seen youngsters print books in the print shop, books

which we sell nationwide, written by teachers in Wingate, printed by the students at Wingate and sold nationwide.

I would like to leave copies of these books with the committee. We have made thousands of dollars for the school.

Senator EAGLETON. That looks like a six pack of beer.

Dr. SCHAIN. Senator, it is a six pack but six books of each kind. I will make these available after the testimony.

I have only listed a few kinds of programs that we developed, but it is only the tip of the iceberg, because what is important also were the activities that go along with this kind of process. For example, teacher training programs are vital. You cannot do anything without effective teaching, and the secret to good teaching is a good teacher. The secret to the good teacher is a good supervisor.

So we trained and retrained teachers. We developed very sophisticated programs for teacher training. Those who were interested and did well, we kept, we encouraged. Those who did not, we rated unsatisfactory, and we separated them from the school and some from the system.

We set up, for example, the Wingate Teacher Training Institute through which we trained not only the teachers of Wingate High School, but we have sent our people out to all parts of the country; for example, Illinois, California, New York itself, to train staffs of other schools in some of these basic teaching techniques, including the teaching of basic skills.

Of course, we had to develop sound and effective relationships with students, parents, community leaders, the whole bit. So what we are really talking about, Senator, is leadership. Simply stated, leadership is the ability to organize people and resources that are available for maximum effectiveness or more simply put, it is getting the most out of whom and what you have to work with.

Leadership, then, I think is the vital ingredient. I think anybody coming to Wingate now would find plenty of evidence, hard and soft, that we are now a school of educational excellence. We have demonstrated very clearly that inner-city schools can and should be effective learning institutions, and much of what we have done is replicable.

Where does that leave us for the future? I think the direction for the 1980's is clear. By the way, this is a copy of the math book, a separate course that we developed at Wingate, printed in the school, and sold nationwide. And this is a copy of "Developing Reading Skills Through Subject Areas" that was written by teachers, and printed in the school. We make a fortune on it, and I will leave these with the committee for its examination.

I think the schools of the 1980's have to restructure themselves based on what we have been through in the 1970's and what we can see coming in the 1980's. We have to develop the kind of teaching skills that can teach youngsters to read and write while at the same time achieving mastery in scholarship. We cannot have one or the other. We must have both.

And staffs can be trained. We have proven that. I also think we must concentrate on developing marketable skills with career-oriented programs in academic areas, and on programs based on learning needs of students, bilingual students, students with deficiencies in basic skills.

We must catch youngsters before they have fallen back irrevocably, catch them at an early stage, find out what the problems are and work on them careerwise, programwise, counselingwise.

When we went to school, Senator, we learned because we had to learn. There was no question. You learned. This was the norm. Whether the teacher was good or bad, you learned. Today, youngsters are quite different. Motivation today is far more important than it ever has been, even though it was always important. We have found, at Wingate, that if we develop academic programs around interest areas, the youngsters will learn better. We have developed academic areas around business careers, legal careers, medical careers, teaching careers, and others.

You know, a youngster who wants to learn, learns. You take a young boy who tells you he could not do percentages in mathematics. It is beyond him. That youngster will tell you the batting average of every Yankee to the thousandth percentage point because he is interested in baseball.

And I think, therefore, schools should magnetize themselves around these academic career areas. Now this, of course, involves retraining. It involves supervisor training, teacher training, curriculum development, et cetera.

I think if we follow this kind of course, it will make moot the current debate about competency testing.

If schools restructure themselves to become effective learning institutions, students will develop competencies as they pass through the grades. I know I could read by the first or second grade. I did not have to worry about passing a reading competency test early in my school career because there was no question about it.

We talk of competency based education—and I know my friend Dr. Spady is an expert on that—but competency based education is really a redundancy. However, if we develop competency based education throughout the grades, it will eliminate the public concern about the lack of basic competencies today, because students will have learned to master reading, writing, and computation long before the question of high school graduation arises.

Thus, if we develop effective schools in the 1980's, we have reason to believe that students will understand the quality of their lives depends on what they learn in school. The loss of this respect for learning was, unfortunately, one of the outcomes of the 1970's. We cannot, we simply cannot afford another such decade for it will threaten our very existence as a great nation and as a major power.

Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. The committee will take a 10-minute recess. I have to make a quorum on a committee one floor below us, and I will do that and come right back. You stay with us.

[Whereupon, a short recess was taken.]

Senator EAGLETON. The committee will once again be in session. I have a series of questions, Dr. Schain. There is no particular theme or order to some of my preliminary questions. They are notes that I took, a couple during the film presentation and then a couple during your testimony. After I complete these scattershot questions, I have some specific questions geared precisely to certain

statements in your prepared statement. So I will do the random questions first.

By the way, your statement will appear in full in the record.

Referring to the film, the first item, or the second item shown in that sequence, was the flight training course, students in a classroom, the ex-Eastern Airlines pilot, and then some small planes taking off and landing, and that was very attractive visually. That is the kind of thing television likes. It is outdoorsish and it has got action in it, et cetera. So it is good for the visual.

What is the future in New York City, jobwise, for black and semibilingual Haitian-American students for jobs as pilots in the New York City area?

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, to answer that, Senator, let me say that the origin of the program was not only career based. It was funded originally by the Federal Department of Criminal Justice. The funding ended 1 year ago after a 3-year seed period.

The hypothesis there was that if we can interest potentially high dropout rate youngsters in a program that is exciting, such as flight training, it might bring them back to school. And in order to get into the program for the first 3 years, you had to be a "loser".

The career element was a secondary element, and let me comment on that in two ways. First, from losers, these youngsters turned into winners because the attendance rate of that group ran over 90 percent. We had no dropouts, no discipline problems, and high college acceptance.

As to how many youngsters will eventually go into the field of aeronautics, we do not know. I know we had a couple of acceptances to the Air Academy, and we had one youngster who was accepted in a southern college with flight training as his main thrust. A number of youngsters have soloed in the last 3 years.

The point is they were turned on to learning, because to enter that program and to stay there, you had to take not only ground training courses in school and flying at the airport, but you had to take very sophisticated courses in mathematics, and science, aerodynamics, meterology, aerial navigation, and so forth. And these youngsters learned.

To what extent that will be carried out into career areas, we do not know, and I think in this case it is a secondary thrust.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, I accept that testimony in that light. However, a great deal of your prepared statement and your verbal articulation thereof refers to career-oriented education, a job at the end of the line.

Now, if the purpose of that program is to capture the attention of a student, then, of course, anything with respect to airplanes can capture the attention of many youngsters, particularly males.

Dr. SCHAIN. We have several females in it, too.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, I imagine there are some females in the program, too. Amelia Earhart was a female. But in terms of jobs, I think it is well known that the flight market is oversaturated. Every major airline has a waiting list of applicants for positions. To my knowledge, and I fly frequently, I have never seen a black pilot on TWA or Eastern which are the two airlines I use to St. Louis. That is a pretty sad commentary on those two airlines.

Some educators tell me this, that the worse thing you can do for a youngster is train that youngster for a job that is unavailable to him. What would you comment on that?

Dr. SCHAIN. I do not agree with much of the thrust there. If you are going to train someone for something that is impossible, of course, that would be a frustrating experience, but I think certainly it is more than time that the situation you describe should be remedied.

There are many black youngsters and adults who would certainly qualify as fine pilots, and I think the time has long since come, and I think the future would be much brighter, if youngsters were trained in that area.

The former president of the New York City Board of Education, Isiah Robinson, a black, is a licensed pilot. He encourages that, too. Let me point this out, too. We are beginning, with the interest of the AFL-CIO and the National Endowment for the Humanities, a program in labor studies next year. There is no other area I can think that is more significant to get minorities in than the labor movement, and I think youngsters, if they are prepared academically and with internships they would serve, would do a great deal of good for our minority community and for the country.

It is long since past that minority youngsters should have good opportunities in these fields. And we feel that we are not preparing them for hopeless jobs. We think we are preparing them for good careers and good futures. Certainly preparation is essential if we are to break this past pattern of hiring.

Now, to comment a little further on this, we are not saying, nor did I intend to say, that every school program must be career-based. There are different strokes for different folks. There are programs that are strictly career-based, medical science for example, and there are programs that are strictly based on a youngsters educational needs at the time, for example, reading, Alpha, Wingate Prep, and there are programs that combine both.

The important thing, Senator, is what gets youngsters turned on to learning, what will make them want to come to school, go to class, behave themselves and achieve. This is our essential thrust.

Senator EAGLETON. Since you have mentioned the labor unions, let us probe that a bit. What kind of cooperation have you had with the building trade unions in the New York area in placing Wingate graduates in any of the apprentice programs in the building trades?

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, Senator, we are now designing, and I think he is still here—yes, Mr. Lanxner of the AFL-CIO is still here as the liaison man for this idea—a program where youngsters will not only engage in academic studies in labor relations such as the history of American labor, collective bargaining, labor relations, et cetera, but will serve as apprentices in labor unions as interns.

I would say this would remove any possible argument that labor unions could have that minority people are not prepared for, nor are they trained for labor organizations or for jobs in organized labor.

We have not approached unions for that sort of thing yet because we are not ready for that.

Senator EAGLETON. Why have you not? You have been at this business 8 years. Why are you just designing now, 8 years later, a program to give a youngster a marketable skill as a potential apprentice in the building trades of New York?

Dr. SCHAIN. Senator, we have been working on straightening a school out for 8 years, and we have the biggest job program in our school of any high school in the city. I go further. About a year and a half ago, there was a Federal law, I forget which it was, which granted about $1½ million to different cities over the Nation for youth employment incentive jobs programs. New York City "goofed," but Wingate High School got it, and we have gotten jobs for more than 400 of our youngsters under this program alone, and those jobs include jobs in all industries.

Senator EAGLETON. Any in the building trade?

Dr. SCHAIN. No; that I know of.

Senator EAGLETON. Can you name me any Wingate High School graduate who has entered an apprenticeship program with anyone of the building trades?

Dr. SCHAIN. No; but we have some in the printing trades.

Senator EAGLETON. Did you say no?

Dr. SCHAIN. No; not that I know of.

Senator EAGLETON. What degree of cooperation have you had from the building trades with Wingate High School?

Dr. SCHAIN. To my knowledge, we have not contacted the building trades at all.

Senator EAGLETON. Have they ever contacted you?

Dr. SCHAIN. No.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you have any idea what minority membership is in the building trades in greater New York?

Dr. SCHAIN. Very low.

Senator EAGLETON. I think it is nonexistent in some of these trades.

Dr. SCHAIN. Yes. Senator, our programs to date, our vocational programs, have concentrated around the shops we have in our school.

Senator EAGLETON. Had you ever talked to Mr. Brennan, who was Secretary of Labor and from New York City?

Dr. SCHAIN. No, I have not, but if I may add, the school's shops are confined to several kinds of shops. For example, we have a printing shop. We have an auto repair shop, and the aircraft shop. And many of our youngsters have gotten entry level jobs in the printing field and in the auto repair field.

Senator EAGLETON. Is the auto repair field unionized?

Dr. SCHAIN. Generally, no.

Senator EAGLETON. The printing trade is a mixed picture, some union, some not.

Dr. SCHAIN. Yes. We have a number of our youngsters working in printing shops already, and in the past have been also, yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Would you supply us at a later time statistics as to any of your graduates that have gotten in any apprenticeship training program in any union in New York, list me the printer or lithographers union and any other union?

Dr. SCHAIN. I can send whatever information we have within the next week, yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Have youngsters ever come to you, Dr. Schain, and said, "I would like to be a carpenter. I think I would like to be an electrician. I think I would like to be a plumber. I think I would like to be a painter," and if they have, what do you tell them?

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, they have not come to me to express their thoughts in that form. We have our wood shops, our metal shops, our home repair shops, and we have a nice registration there. To the extent that the building trade unions have approached us, it has been nil. We have not been approached by unions.

But we feel that with a labor studies program in place, we will be in a stronger position to approach them. We have been assured in terms of interest by the AFL-CIO that they will cooperate and ask their constitutent unions, including the construction trades, to cooperate with us when the program is in place.

Senator EAGLETON. Oh, yes. The AFL for years, the national AFL-CIO, has issued statements, come one come all; we are anxious to have minorities; we will help; we will work; we will cooperate. You do not pay much attention to that, do you?

Dr. SCHAIN. Senator, if we set up a program, you can bet that we will follow it through. There is no program we have set up——

Senator EAGLETON. I think you will follow it through, Dr. Schain. I wonder if others will follow through after you follow through.

Dr. SCHAIN. If they do not, we will know the reason why. We do not just talk. We do.

Senator EAGLETON. You stated in your testimony: "You should catch the youngsters before they fall back irrevocably. We should catch them at an early age." I could not agree more. But you are a high school. Are you 4 years of high school or 3?

Dr. SCHAIN. Four.

Senator EAGLETON. Some of the reading experts in the country focusing on reading, in fact, the overwhelming majority of the reading experts in the country, state that after about the fourth grade level if the youngster is severely impaired in his or her reading skills, beyond the fourth grade level, the process of redemption is very, very difficult indeed. Would you agree with that general statement?

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, in the first place, I am not convinced that many experts are in fact experts in reading. I have been through too much to believe that. Second, I certainly believe that if a youngster comes into the ninth grade unable to read, that he has a tough problem to overcome because now it is not only a problem of developmental reading skills, it is a psychological problem. He has now closed the door and he will rationalize, "Who wants to read?" And therefore, the problem becomes a double problem, opening a locked door the kid has closed on himself and teaching him to read.

But we have done it, and out scores at beginning and end show dramatic improvements. So that if I had my druthers I would start a strong accountability program in the lower grades straight up. Youngsters would not be promoted if they did not reach certain levels of skills one grade after the other.

It is not necessary for any youngster to come to the ninth grade unable to read. But as long as we have them, and as long as I am

high school principal, I must address myself to these kids who come that way. My bailiwick is rather limited.

Had my bailiwick been longer and larger, they would not come to high school unable to read.

Senator EAGLETON. In your concluding remarks, you made some reference to competency testing or skill testing or what-have-you. Let me ask you this. If a school or a school system is interested in getting into this competency testing business, skill testing, should not the testing be done at the earliest stages of the educational process and not at the 12th grade one week before the scheduled graduation ceremony?

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, Senator, I cannot agree with you more. And unfortunately, in my judgment, this competency-based testing movement is the result of a political decision. It is not an educational decision. Nobody asked the educators what to do. They made a political decision. The educators are asked to carry it out at the 11th hour.

Yes, I agree. If we strengthen our academic programs from the first grade on, what youngster would not be able to pass such a competency test by the sixth grade? The competency test we are talking about is no higher than the sixth grade level.

Therefore, as I pointed out in my remarks, if we strengthen our academic programs down below, this whole question of competency-based testing will disappear, just disappear. The public got excited and made political decisions only when they began to see a product that was not up to snuff. Let the product be a good one, and nobody will begin asking for competency testing.

Now, if you talk of competency-based education, then I am with you. In other words, all education is designed to develop competencies. We go back to the old seven cardinal principles of education which describes the goals of an education system, to create a person who has basic skills, vocational competence, worthy of home membership, et cetera.

If an educational system can do that for a youngster, it will have developed competencies. Unfortunately, in the last decade or more, we have neglected the kind of standards that would insure that a youngster graduating from high school or even elementary school possesses the kind of competencies that education should lead to.

Senator EAGLETON. You said, in your testimony: "Schools should magnetize themselves around careers." There is a concept out there called magnet schools. Many dozens of public school systems around the country have what they call magnet schools. St. Louis has some magnet schools.

Dr. SCHAIN. New York has several.

Senator EAGLETON. Were you using magnetize in the specific frame of reference of magnet schools or were you using it as sort of a generic verb?

Dr. SCHAIN. You have touched a very interesting area for me. I am strongly opposed to setting up magnet schools except where there is a clear and present case for its needs. For example, if we want to set up a school for aviation trades, you, obviously need the kind of equipment that all schools cannot have, or a school with some special program that requires hundreds of thousands or mil-

lions of dollars in equipment that every school cannot purchase, that I can see.

But if you are talking about magnet schools that have special programs for the arts or for science or for engineering or medical science, I do not buy that.

Senator EAGLETON. Why not?

Dr. SCHAIN. Any academic high school or comprehensive high school can set up such programs and we have them in Wingate, but what happens otherwise is that these magnet schools raid the general academic schools, taking off the cream, leaving them with the rest, and it serves no particular purpose. Take a school like Wingate. We serve a zone; we are zoned. We must take every youngster from that zone except for those who are accepted by special high schools, including the magnet high schools.

Our function is to take every youngster we get and to give him as fine an education as we can. Now, some youngsters in our school like careers in medical science. Fine. We can set up such a program and we have, and it is a good one. We can set up an engineering, a preengineering program. We can set up a business careers program. We can set up any program that these magnet schools can, but usually, Senator, magnet schools are set up as political devices.

The biggest fights in New York City occur over magnet schools. Magnet schools, except in special cases, are not necessary. They are not advisable. Let us make each school the kind of magnet that will provide special programs for many kids. That is what I meant by magnetizing your programs within each school.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, let me describe a condition that I know exists in Chicago, St. Louis, and Kansas City, but I have no testimony on it with respect to New York City. In the aforementioned three major cities, there is another kind of skimming of the cream process that seems to be taking place.

Black parents in sizable numbers are taking their children out of neighborhood black public schools and enrolling their children in the nearby parochial school. There is a high school in Kansas City called Bishop Hogan High School. It is 75 percent black. Of that 75 percent black, two-thirds are non-Catholic. It is a diocesan Catholic school, et cetera.

There is a similar phenomenon in St. Louis. We took testimony in Chicago, and a similar phenomenon there. Is that occurring in New York City and what do you have to say about it?

Dr. SCHAIN. My understanding is that the Catholic parochial schools in New York City have been enlisting and enrolling large numbers of non-Catholics. I think—are you relating this to the magnet idea?

Senator EAGLETON. No. It is the skimming of the cream.

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, the skimming of the cream comes because of public's image of the public school is a low one. Now, you take the minority community which you addressed yourself to. We had a difficult job up to the last 2 years getting the good black youngsters who lived in the Wingate zone to go to Wingate.

The parents of those academically, good youngsters, would send them to these magnet schools because they felt there they get a

better education. Magnet schools thus tend to get the cream. Many parents enrolled these capable students into parochial schools.

They are very happy with Wingate now because we have made Wingate a good and a worthwhile educational experience. That is all the parents want. No parent wants to spend $2,000 a year in a parochial school if he can get a good education in a public school. No parent wants to send his youngster 5 miles to another school if his local school is giving the student a good education. This is what I believe schools ought to address themselves to; provide sound, solid education for your youngsters. Then you will have no flight from the city, you will have no flight from the public schools, you will have no need for magnet schools, et cetera.

Senator EAGLETON. Tuition in a local parochial high school in New York City is not $2,000, is it?

Dr. SCHAIN. I just used the number at random. I have no idea what the tuition is.

Senator EAGLETON. What is the nearest Catholic high school to Wingate?

Dr. SCHAIN. We have Nazareth which is approximately 3 miles from Wingate.

Senator EAGLETON. Is it located in the heart of what might be called a black ghetto?

Dr. SCHAIN. No. It is on the fringe, but the area immediately around the school which consists largely of single-family homes which used to be all white is now largely black. It is a middle class black area.

Senator EAGLETON. Just off the top of your head, do you know the racial mix at Nazareth High School?

Dr. SCHAIN. No, but I do know that very few youngsters in our zone go to Nazareth. We are getting them back. I do know that about 3 years ago I had a big hassle with the biggest feeder school, a public junior high school. Their best kids were going to enroll in the local parochial school and some in the special schools like Brooklyn Tech and so forth, and they were very frank. The junior high principal said, "These youngsters have parents who want them in better schools. They are sending them to parochial schools and to the special public high schools."

This is not happening any more with Wingate, and I think that itself speaks to the fact that if parents can be assured of a good education, they are not going to look to fly from the public schools, and that is a very important concept.

Senator EAGLETON. Have you ever talked to parents who have had, at one time, one or more of their children in one of the parochial schools?

Dr. SCHAIN. Many times.

Senator EAGLETON. What is the single, foremost—single most prevalent reason that they give you for, in the past, for having their children in the parochial school?

Dr. SCHAIN. Education.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you ever hear the word "discipline"?

Dr. SCHAIN. Of course, but it is never their youngsters. You are talking about discipline in the school itself? Oh, yes, they heard that this and that school are terrible; kids go wild; there is no

discipline; kids cannot learn. In a parochial school there is discipline. We do not get that any more.

As a matter of fact, I get parents in regularly, and they tell me, "Dr. Schain, we love this school. Our sons and daughters are getting good educations." And they come from parochial situations. So it has been reversed.

And I think that is a trend that must be replicated in schools throughout the Nation. Parents need not spend money when the public schools can serve their children well.

Senator EAGLETON. My experience with this business of transferring to the parochial schools is that when I meet with the parents of students who have been transferred from the public schools to the parochial schools, first and foremost they tell me discipline, and really that applies to you, because it was when you came into Wingate in 1970, I think you said one of the first things you had to establish is a sense of order and a sense of discipline.

Dr. SCHAIN. Absolutely.

Senator EAGLETON. There is a craving out there, just an absolute craving.

Dr. SCHAIN. It is the No. 1 problem for educators in the country, but unfortunately, I think they view it from the wrong point of view. I participated in some panel recently on discipline, and the other panelists started to talk about how they punish the unruly kid. My point was I am not going to talk about how we punish youngsters who break rules. We do that. I want to talk about how to set up the kind of school atmosphere where kids will behave themselves because it is the thing to do. That is positive discipline, and that is the kind we have at Wingate, Senator.

Senator EAGLETON. You stated in your testimony, "Every kid is interested in something." I dare say every kid is interested in something. Is every kid interested in something that is potentially useful?

Dr. SCHAIN. When you say "always" or "never" you really are speaking in absolutes.

Senator EAGLETON. Those are your words, not mine.

Dr. SCHAIN. I understand. It might have been hyperbole. But I would say that if we could scratch the surface even the youngsters who act out really would be interested in something worthwhile. We do not always succeed in scratching everybody's surface, and therefore, you always have a percentage of youngsters whom we never succeed in reaching.

But are they reachable? I think so, but our resources stretch only so far.

Senator EAGLETON. Let me get into this book publishing business. I have not had a chance, obviously, to see these books. Was part of the reason that you went into this printing of books, et cetera, a dissatisfaction on your part and teachers at Wingate with inadequacies of books that are being turned out at an absolute record clip at great expense, at great profit to such publishers as McGraw-Hill, et cetera, et cetera?

Dr. SCHAIN. Not really, because the thrust of these books was a little different. I spoke before about the need—for example, in the reading skill area—to retrain teachers, secondary school teachers, in using their disciplines—science, math, social studies—to help

youngsters learn how to read. Teachers had not been taught these teaching skills in their teacher training institutions.

We engaged in a 1½-year program, a concentrated program, where every teacher in the school, through his department, was trained to use, for example, social studies to teach youngsters to read well and learn social studies better. One result of that schoolwide, with workshops, demonstration lessons, exchanging and comparing lesson plans, and occasional use of consultants was the compiling of this book which is a series of lesson plans developed by the teachers themselves so that their colleagues over the Nation can see how they can use their disciplines to help youngsters learn how to read. It is a teacher training book published in our school's printing shop under the aegis of "The Wingate High School Press."

Now, the other book developed out of another——

Senator EAGLETON. Did you check with the plethora of established textbook publishers?

Dr. SCHAIN. Oh, yes.

Senator EAGLETON. They had nothing that would meet your needs?

Dr. SCHAIN. No. There is a plethora of books on what they call teaching reading in the secondary areas, in the subject areas. If you notice our title is Developing Reading Skills Through Subject Areas, which is a completely different concept.

We were not satisfied with what existed, and frankly, Senator, even if we were, you will find that, while there are general guidelines that can be replicated in every school, every school should have tailormade programs. That is the final refinement that makes the school a topnotch school.

Therefore, we would have had to develop our own specific lesson plans anyhow. This book has, perhaps, about 24 lesson plans out of about 200 that I have in my office that teachers turned in. We edited them, and they go like hotcakes over the country.

The other one, if I may say, is the result of another process. We found youngsters just not succeeding in mathematics for two reasons. One, they had not come to us with the necessary skills from the lower schools. We have to start from simple arithmetic. Second, they saw no relevance in math courses.

You know, when I took geometry, Senator—I do not know if it was your experience—I never really understood the subject. Geometry is supposed to be a mathematics subject based on logic. I never understood the logic. It was taught to me as rules. It was almost rote. I said to our math chairman, "What is the sense of teaching kids geometry if they do not see the logic. Let us teach them logic first and then geometry."

And then I said, "What is the sense of teaching formal courses in algebra, intermediate algebra, et cetera, unless and until the youngsters understand what mathematics is all about. How does it really apply to their own lives?" We then developed this course called activities in math. It is a 2-year course. It is not remedial. It is based upon things youngsters do daily. We then published a book based on this new course. In the first year—we are publishing the second year's book this coming year—we have five modules which take the whole year.

Let me read the titles of the modules so that you will see the scope. One is numbers and number patterns. Second is consumer mathematics. A third is metric measurement. A fourth, probability, and the fifth, geometry.

Now, these are solid, substantial works developed by teachers for students, and the book we published based on this course goes all over the country. It is a completely different concept of organizing mathematics in high schools. We also have algebra, geometry, intermediate algebra, trigonometry, calculus, data processing. We have it all, but this is something extra.

Senator EAGLETON. I guess the sum and thrust of your testimony on this point is a very serious indictment of the textbook publishers of the country. Here we have an industry that is remarkably lucrative, and it is one of the highest profit areas in publishing. So far McGraw-Hill has been the subject of an attempted takeover, for instance, by American Express. Thus far, successfully thwarted by McGraw-Hill management. There is only one thing that makes more money, a cookbook. Cookbooks are inescapably successful and profitable. Textbooks are next.

But here you have this giant industry in the country turning out books by the carload, all with color pictures because they sell for more, all books that have to be changed every year, every year a new set of books. Here is this industry, and you find, at Wingate High School, you can do better dealing with your own faculty who are there on the so-called firing line. You can devise on your own more useful, more meaningful books than you can get from all these giants in the publishing trade.

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, Senator, my own view is a little more charitable toward the industry, and I do not hold any grief for them. They certainly are giants, and I do not think there is a big publisher that is not owned by some other conglomerate like CBS or whatever.

But many textbooks are published because the school systems demand them to be published that way. We tried to get this mathematics book taken by a commercial publisher, because we would make more money for the school. He looked at the book. He sent it around, and he said, "Dr. Schain, we think it is great, but no school system would adopt this curriculum. They want the, quote, 'regular' math curriculum, and so we cannot sell it."

They, in other words, publish according to market surveys.

Years ago, I opened a little publishing outfit, Teachers' Practical Press, which had books written by practicing teachers and supervisors to help teachers on the job. It was taken over by Prentice-Hall in a distribution arrangement, but before they did, they did a market survey to make sure they were not going to lose by it.

They worked with national mailings and computer operations to see if it would be profitmaking. I cannot fault the book publishers, but we found we had special needs. We are not afraid to take chances. We feel we can help our kids and we go ahead and move on our own.

Senator EAGLETON. Doctor, that is a vote. Can you stay a little longer?

Dr. SCHAIN. I am at your disposal.

Senator EAGLETON. We will be in recess for about 10 minutes.

[Whereupon, a short recess was taken.]

Senator EAGLETON. Doctor, although it is not directly germane to the immediate focus of this inquiry, this inquiry being on the basic skills, it is nevertheless fairly close to the mark when we talk about bilingual education, and I would like to elicit some comments from you.

The Federal Government has been in the business of giving assistance for bilingual education now for many years. I am not sure whether it goes all the way back to the first of—well, ESEA was 1965, bilingual was 2 years later, 1967. Would you care to comment on how efficacious that assistance from the Federal Government has been? Is it reasonably well targeted? Is it meaningful? Or whatever your comments might be.

Dr. SCHAIN. You know, there are various points of view on the values of bilingual education, and I certainly feel that the school is responsible for taking youngsters who have recently arrived from foreign countries and making every effort to teach them the English language.

We run into this kind of problem which I think makes the Federal efforts worthwhile, at least the intent, and that is, you get a youngster in the public school system who has just arrived from a foreign country, who does not speak, read, or understand English. You have a choice of actions and policies.

You can tell him, "Well, learn English as you go along, and do the best you can," which means he is going to lose something in the scholarship and academic area since he really cannot communicate. Or you can go to the opposite extreme and say, "Well, we are going to isolate you," I do not mean that in the pejorative sense. "We will isolate you in a program that will have as its main thrust teaching you English as quickly as possible. Therefore, if you learn English quickly, you can begin to function quickly."

And the third alternative is to combine the two by providing academic courses in the native language of the youngster so that he would not lose out in the scholarship while he is learning English. The Federal program has opted for the latter, the bilingual approach. My own experience and thinking is that it has fallen short even in philosophy, and it makes no provision for, I think, what is an essential part.

For example, I think I referred to my visit to Israel a number of years ago where I saw this Ulpan. Sitting in a class in Israel in an Ulpan was a student who had been in my class more than 30 years before, a man of about 50 who had just come to Israel as a skilled businessman. He said he could not function, could not get a job because he did not know Hebrew.

Within a few months, he had learned Hebrew and now he was able to function. What I am saying is I think our first obligation to the youngster is to get him to learn English as quickly as possible. We set up such a program, the Wingate English Academy, where all day long for as long as he needed it, usually up to about 5 months he was exposed to nothing but English from survival to functional English, and gradually, we introduced concepts he had to know anyhow, the school, the neighborhood, the city, the country, transportation, the daily living needs in English.

Now, once he learned his basic English skills, he could then enter the bilingual aspects of our program. Here he is taught the academic subjects in his own language with increasing use of English as he goes along so that he does not lose that sort of time. But he needs that supportive work.

Finally, according to the *Lau* decision and the Aspira consent decree in New York, we are not to isolate these youngsters, and that is a mistake. In the early phase of their arrival to our schools, they must be able to be together so they can work on their common problem which is learning English, learning the school, learning about the neighborhood, learning about the city, et cetera.

So I think the bilingual education thrust is necessary and worthwhile. I am not too happy with the way the courts have interpreted regulations, who is eligible, what you must do. A youngster is forced into this even if he does not want it, and I think that is wrong.

Senator EAGLETON. You are under a court order, that is New York City school districts, I take it, that there can be no segregation of non-English-speaking students for the purpose of teaching that group as a class the English language?

Dr. SCHAIN. Not exactly. Let me clarify that. We have bilingual classes which, of course, are populated by these youngsters only, but they are not to be separated either in separate parts of the building or separate buildings, or they must be mainstreamed in the subjects that do not require bilingual thrusts such as health education.

Senator EAGLETON. Or phys ed.

Dr. SCHAIN. Phys ed, yes.

Senator EAGLETON. But suppose you have a Haitian student. He is a sophomore, hypothetically. He speaks French, and his French is not absolutely perfect. He speaks next to no English. What kind of a history class does that student go to or a mathematics class?

Dr. SCHAIN. Under the bilingual program, not only by law but as we have it, he is given a bilingual history class. The teacher, and we have a core already developed over the years, will probably be a native Haitian who has been qualified and licensed by the New York City Board of Education as a bilingual social studies teacher in French. Actually, the language is Creole. It is not even French. And that class is conducted largely in French.

The guidelines of the court orders require that that class be taught in French entirely with occasional thrusts in English. That is not my thinking, nor is it what I like. I would like to start out with a heavy dose, obviously, in French, but as the year goes on, more and more English. Let the kid learn English as quickly as possible.

The program I described, the Wingate English Academy, night be forbidden by the *Aspira* consent decree or even the *Lau* decision, but we did it anyhow.

Senator EAGLETON. You used the word "mainstreaming." I do not want to leap too far afield. What mainstreaming does the New York City school system do with respect to handicapped children?

Dr. SCHAIN. This is, I would say, one of the biggest problems all schools are facing now, dealing with handicapped youngsters.

Under the Federal law, they must be mainstreamed as much as possible, and that is judgmental too.

For example, I was just discussing that question with one of our guests in the visitors section. There are different kinds of handicapped youngsters. We have in our school two categories. We have the intellectually handicapped and the emotionally handicapped. We do not have the physically handicapped or the visually handicapped.

And we do mainstream as much as we can. Of course, it varies. With the emotionally handicapped youngster, we have to be very careful about mainstreaming because they have been clinically identified as youngsters who have emotional, severe emotional problems and they could go off any minute. So we have to be careful how we mainstream, but we do.

With the intellectually handicapped, we mainstream quite a bit on an individual basis.

Senator EAGLETON. You feel no pressures from either your State department of education or your school board or from the Federal Government to mainstream the physically handicapped?

Dr. SCHAIN. We do not have any physically handicapped in our program. We only have emotionally handicapped and intellectually handicapped. But there are other schools that have them. When you talk of pressures, the only pressure I refer to here is the pressure of the law, and obviously, the chancellor of the school system is anxious to obey the law. He must, and he, of course, communicates his concerns and his orders to us, and we have to comply as best as we can.

I think the fault is with the law, not with the administration. I think it was an ill-thought-out law. In addition to the fact that it is ill-thought-out in many respects, it is also badly drawn in terms of funding.

To teach youngsters who are handicapped requires no more than 1 to 10 ratio, and with emotionally handicapped, even smaller. Who is going to pay for that? The Federal law did not provide adequate funding for this sort of program but we are stuck with it.

Senator EAGLETON. How many feeder junior highs feed into Wingate?

Dr. SCHAIN. We have several dozen, unfortunately, because we are spread out over a wide geographic area, but there are about three or four that give us most of our youngsters.

Senator EAGLETON. What is your relationship to those three or four, and with any of the others for that matter, so as to try to make the transition from the feeder junior high to Wingate more smoother, a smoother one?

Dr. SCHAIN. We have an extremely sophisticated articulation program which consists of the following kinds of activities. First, we send out counselors and department coordinators and coordinators of programs to each feeder school, the main ones, where they present our programs to the parents, the youngsters, and to their guidance counselors.

We take with us audiovisual materials such as this film. We take press material that has been written about our school. We make ourselves available there for discussions with the youngsters and with parents. We invite the parents of the feeder schools to our

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school to parent meetings, to visit our program on our college and career day. We invite all the feeder school people to come in. We have regular luncheons at our school for guidance counselors of all these feeder schools and I am in constant communication with the principals on all the problems.

Senator EAGLETON. Did not the New York City school system at one time experiment with, and you can probably supply for me the technical term, but it was an experimentation in what I would call local option; that is, subcomponent parts of the system were sort of free to do their own thing, local control of local people.

Dr. SCHAIN. You are talking of decentralization. Well, the decentralization law was passed by the State legislature in 1969, if I am not mistaken, and it provided for local community school boards in addition to the central board. The central board is, in effect, the board of education for the high schools, because the high schools are not decentralized. The others, the elementary schools, the junior high schools, and the intermediate schools are under the control of the local boards. They are subject to the general rules of the school system which the chancellor sets.

But they certainly have the right to develop their own programs within those guidelines and any local options that do not conflict with those guidelines. And while I have not been asked and you are advised not to answer what you are not asked, I think that the decentralization plan has been a disaster and a mistake.

Senator EAGLETON. I am not saying it is or is not. I will take your word for it.

Dr. SCHAIN. That is my opinion.

Senator EAGLETON. I know it has been very much criticized, but is not what you are doing at Wingate in essence an example of decentralization? That is, you under your own aegis, your own direction, are running an operation for 3,300 students. You are publishing your own textbooks. You have, in essence, your own kingdom that you are very successfully operating. Is that not part and parcel of decentralization?

Dr. SCHAIN. No; not the decentralization we are referring to, because when we use decentralization here, I am using it in a different sense. I think every school actually should be using decentralization in another sense, decentralizing and developing its tailormade programs.

But when I speak of decentralization in terms of the school districts, you are opening the door to political factors, in the selection of personnel, the unnecessary expenditures of money, the duplication of efforts, the creation of local fiefdoms. I find that is a completely different ball game.

Senator EAGLETON. I wanted to clarify that for the record. How many high schools are there in the New York City public school system?

Dr. SCHAIN. Approximately 110, about 110.

Senator EAGLETON. Are any of the other 109 in any way emulating, and if so, successfully, what you are doing at Wingate?

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, let me first explain that among the 110, about 25 to 30 are vocational high schools that are different than academic high schools, although we have in Wingate a vocational component. Then you have about five or six specialized academic

schools that accept people by exam, like High School of Science, Brooklyn Technical High School, Stvyvesant High School, High School of Music and Art, and so forth.

The rest of them are general academic schools such as Wingate. I hesitate to say they have done what we have done for two reasons. First of all, it would be presumptuous.

Second of all, it would certainly—well, let me say that sometimes the "vibes" you get are negative from your colleagues who may feel, "What are you doing that is so hot that we are not doing also?" However, I do know this. In the last year or two, a number of schools, specifically, that I am familiar with have begun to replicate some of the programs we have instituted.

For example, I know of two or three schools in Brooklyn that have begun to institute schoolwide reading programs such as I have described here. I know of several Brooklyn schools now have begun to develop these academies, these institutes.

Last year, for example, we set up a teacher training activity for all the Brooklyn high schools under my superintendency to develop teaching skills in reading through subject areas. Some schools followed up this activity by developing similar programs. So I do know of schools that are using some specific things we have developed, and the approaches we have developed to set up their own motivational programs. Yes; it has had some effect that way.

Senator EAGLETON. In the year of egalitarian education, what is your opinion, within the confines of a public school system, of having schools that accept students only on the basis of an exam?

Dr. SCHAIN. My position on that issue is similar to magnet schools. Where there is a clear need for a school that cannot be duplicated by the other schools, then I would accept that theory or that philosophy and by the way, egalitarianism or democracy does not mean that everybody has everything that is the same as the next guy. He has the same opportunity, and that is the important thing.

If a school is set up, to cater only to the intellectually gifted, it would be foolish to allow anybody to come in who is obviously not capable. That is not antidemocratic, because democracy has never meant egalitarianism in that strict sense.

Senator EAGLETON. But the trend has been, and again, I do not know specifically about New York, but the trend has been to do away with special schools that cater to the gifted and the collegebound. For instance, Boston Latin historically was a topnotch high school.

Dr. SCHAIN. Topnotch.

Senator EAGLETON. 99.9 percent of the graduates went on to college, many to Harvard, et cetera. That was considered to be elitist. So Boston Latin was equalized. It is still called Boston Latin, but it does not have anywhere close to that record of collegebound graduates, et cetera.

Do you decry that?

Dr. SCHAIN. Senator, for many years up to the early 1940's New York City had such a school, Townsend Harris High School. Certainly today, I do not approve of that philosophy. I think that kind of elitism should be distributed among all the schools. We could use the cream, our share of the cream. For example, we are setting up

a special elitist program for our gifted students and you know the image you create also has its effects in drawing youngsters of that ilk, too.

Starting next term, because we want to attract the cream also, we are setting up a 2-year program in the great scholars area where we are going to make the course of study for these youngsters the "Great Books of Western Civilization." That is an elitist program within our school for youngsters who can take it and want it.

But to have a separate school and drain off the elite from the whole city, whether it is Boston, Chicago, New York, I do not approve.

Senator EAGLETON. Doctor, let me say this at this time, if I may. I have to leave and go to the Senate floor. We are debating an issue that I am involved in so they are waiting breathlessly for my marvelous words.

We do have some additional questions. If you would stay with us just a little while longer, Ms. McCord and Mr. Smith will ask some questions of you geared primarily to your prepared testimony, and they are the areas into which I have not had time to pursue.

But let me say personally that I am very grateful to you for coming here. It is considerable trouble, I know, and I think it has been a very, very interesting session. I repeat now in essence what I attempted to say at the outset. We hear of and read of all the draconian disastrous results, and quite sadly there is a good deal of disaster out there. So it is not demagoging an issue to point to problem areas.

But it is refreshing and even exhilarating at times to hear some good news. Quite obviously from what we have heard of you, and your reputation that has preceded your appearance here this morning, you are a person who has tackled a very difficult problem in a high school that was down the tubes, or whatever the phrase was, and you have resurrected it into something that is functioning and beneficial.

What troubles me, is that as well known as the Wingate story is—I mean articles have been written about it. I mentioned those in my statement. A segment from a national network news show who praised it quite lavishly, we saw that. Why do we hear about so few Wingates and hear so much about innumerable unsuccessful operations?

Dr. SCHAIN. Well, Senator, my sphere is limited to Wingate High School. I think it could be done. Were my sphere expanded to the possible future Secretary of Education, we might do it nationwide, but I know it could be done. It is a matter of effective leadership. It is a matter of getting a staff, and nothing could be done without a wonderful staff, training a staff, training your supervisors and enlisting everybody's help and doing the job. It can be done.

So all I can speak for is Wingate High School. Were I given a wider area of responsibility, I would be glad to answer for that, and I think I could answer successfully.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, thank you very much, Dr. Schain. I will be excused.

Dr. SCHAIN. Thank you, Senator. If you ever take a trip to New York City—

Senator EAGLETON. Yes, I want to come out and see your operation.

Dr. SCHAIN. I would be most pleased and privileged to have you.

Senator EAGLETON. How about some time this fall. You are in summer recess I take it.

Dr. SCHAIN. Absolutely. It would be a pleasure.

Senator EAGLETON. We will come up some day. Maybe October. I can give you the exact date. We will come up the weekend that the Yankees are in the world series.

Dr. SCHAIN Well, the way it looks so far, I am not so sure of that. If you had said the Mets in the world series, I would think there is something wrong.

Thank you, Senator.

Ms. MCCORD. One thing that was not particularly covered in your testimony is the question of writing skills. It is something that the committee is also very concerned with. Do you have anything comparable to your miniprogram?

Dr. SCHAIN. Yes. As a matter of fact, when I get back, I am going to send you an interim report on such a program. We set up such a program in September of 1978. We had a pilot program going in the spring of 1978 from February to June. We set up a more complete program in September. We did an interim study which I will send you.

What that program consisted of was developing a structured program in the English classes to develop writing skills, working on the basics of writing skills, many of them. It is structured. We also, then, correlated that program with other departments.

For example, every department—social studies, science, math—was notified that for this week we are concentrating on *x* skill, and they were to develop similar programs within social studies to develop that particular writing skill.

Then our testing program had a provision for testing writing skills. For example, our uniform examinations contained questions which are graded strictly on writing skill development.

Ms. MCCORD. Is this the Board of Regents uniform testing you are talking about?

Dr. SCHAIN. No. Each school develops its own testing program apart from regents examinations. For example, every youngster taking the first term of American history takes the same exam at a given time when there are no classes. We can measure achievement that way. Now, we did a pretest and a posttest for the writing program, and I will send you the results of that program this week.

You will get it at the end of the week, and it shows significant gains from the 9th grade to the 12th grade. We did it by grade and found significant gains in writing skills of our youngsters. And I will describe that in detail with the report. It has it all.

Ms. MCCORD. Can you tell me what percentage of your students, if it is just entering freshmen, are enrolled in the minischool?

Dr. SCHAIN. The minischool carries about 120 youngsters on its register, and they come in when they enter the school in 9th or 10th grade. It is not really only 9th grades. And the youngsters stay there sometimes for the 11th grade, and a few youngsters have graduated from the minischool.

It stays at about 125 in number and is geared to work with youngsters who really are functional illiterates to start with. I can send you some data on their progress also as they stay in the school.

We were concerned when we started that program about 6 years ago that youngsters isolated in a program of that sort would consider themselves dummies and would have a worse image of themselves. Interestingly, they have developed a rapport and an esprit de corps where they do not even want to leave the program. They are doing so well and they are happy and they are succeeding, which is the first time in their lives that they are succeeding in school.

Ms. McCord. In Diane Ravitch's article, she talked about one super success story of one student who went from 4th, I think it was, to 10th grade reading level in 3 years.

Dr. Schain. Yes.

Ms. McCord. But then she points out that the average student gains 1 year in reading ability for every year in the minischool, and the average starting point is fourth grade. If you stay in there for 4 years, does that mean you are graduating with an eighth grade reading level?

Dr. Schain. That would be possible. In New York City, you must reach a minimum grade of eight in reading to get a diploma. Under current regulations, if you do not develop your reading skills up to eight, and there are tests for that, then you cannot get a diploma.

Now, when you take a youngster who comes into the ninth grade reading on the third grade level—and we have many, many reading on second grade level—and then you say that that youngster from that point on makes progress year for year, that is unusual. It then begins to accelerate. Once you hit a certain point in reading, you make more rapid progress than when you are starting from scratch with nothing.

The youngsters, seeing and feeling the difference, really respond beautifully. And I would say many youngsters graduate with an eight reading average; yes.

Ms. McCord. Is Wingate participating in the pilot testing program that the Board of Regents put in in 1976? I understand that is not mandatory until June of this year.

Dr. Schain. You may be speaking of the basic competency testing.

Ms. McCord. Basic competency testing.

Dr. Schain. Every school does. And a youngster, to get a diploma, as of now, June 1979, every youngster must pass a reading and mathematics basic competency exam. As of next year, 1980, they will have to also pass the basic competency exam in writing, and as of 1981, under current plans, they will have to pass a regent's competency exam which is different in reading, writing and mathematics. Everybody, except for some specific groups, must pass these tests to receive a diploma.

Ms. McCord. How does Wingate measure up vis-a-vis the other schools in the system on that kind of testing?

Dr. Schain. Well, let me say this. Remember, when the youngsters come into Wingate, at least two-thirds of them are reading at

maybe fourth grade or fifth grade or below. This year, we will have about 450 candidates for graduation in June. The last basic competency in reading was given in January. After the results, we had about——

Ms. McCord. At what level is that?

Dr. Schain. No. That is, in order to graduate you have to pass that exam.

Ms. McCord. So that is in the 12th grade.

Dr. Schain. Of those youngsters who were ready to graduate, of those who took the exam, only 20 did not pass. There were about 30 who were not present for the exam and, therefore, did not pass either, but not because they failed it. Only 20 out of 450, which is amazing.

Now, that does not mean that they read on 12th grade, because that reading test is geared for about a 6th grade level. Nevertheless, it is enough to pass the New York State basic competency exam.

For those who did not pass, we set up special programs for them. All those youngsters who did not pass either the reading or the math basic competency tests who were ready to graduate, were programed this term, this semester, for special classes in math and/or reading in addition to their regular program. We also have a voluntary after-school tutorial program for such youngsters. And some of the high schools in New York run by the Board of Education have a Saturday tutorial.

We do not wait. We do not react. We act. We saw this coming in November. We set it up in November and we carried it over into the new term.

Ms. McCord. The suggestion has been made before that, for something that the Federal Government can do as a role in this whole process is to fund year-long fellowships for public school teachers at all levels. These are teachers in the classrooms—to allow them to go back to colleges and universities to complete——

Dr. Schain. Disaster.

Ms. McCord. Why?

Dr. Schain. Because the colleges and universities have never proven that they can train teachers to teach.

Ms. McCord. What would you do if you had that year to train the teachers at Wingate?

Dr. Schain. Give me the teachers. I will train them.

Ms. McCord. But how? I mean, what do you do that is different?

Dr. Schain. Well, there are several thrusts in training a teacher, and I will be glad to go through a number of them. First of all, a teacher's job involves many different kinds of things. For example, right now for the past year still running on a weekly basis we have a training course that all new teachers must take.

Now, the Board of Education mandates that new teachers to take that, but we set it up in our school, and we have teachers from all over Brooklyn coming in for that. That includes all teaching skills even clerical skills, administrative skills, lesson planning skills, teaching skills, human relations skills, testing skills. I can go through the whole gamut.

And in order to teach someone how to teach, you not only have to know how to teach but what constitutes good teaching and how

to train a person to do it. College professors have never shown that they can do it. We on the job can.

This is, by the way, one of the essences of the Wingate Teacher Training Institute. We train teachers to teach. More than that, we train the supervisors in the skills necessary to train their teachers to teach.

Ms. McCord. Am I correct that the teacher training institute is operated in conjunction with Brooklyn College?

Dr. Schain. No, you are not correct. It has nothing to do with Brooklyn College. The Wingate Teacher Training Institute was set up at our school about a year or so ago as a result of a number of activities we had engaged in that involved the training of not only our teachers and supervisors but we got calls from places out in far Long Island like South Hampton. I was in Wilmington, Ill., in February. We were in Houston. We are going into Danvers, Mass., in August and I am going to Long Island again with a team. I am going down to Florida next month on a similar mission.

So we set up several kinds of activities. One, we have a team of what I would call experts in teaching skills in the different areas.

Ms. McCord. Are these teachers?

Dr. Schain. Some are teachers and some are supervisors. By the way, interestingly, one of my key people who was a teacher of science at Wingate for 6 years was just appointed as an assistant principal of science in another high school in February.

We also have developed within each department in our school very sophisticated programs where you have workshops within each department for all teachers, demonstration lessons, seminars, exchange of lesson plans, observations by the principal and the assistant principal, discussion in school, department meetings, et cetera.

We also have developed a series of teacher training tapes, video tapes made by the kids in the Radio & Television Institute. We have, for example, a tape now that we export all over the country. We sell it for $100 a tape. This is a tape on classroom discipline that the Senator was speaking about, where the teacher set up a simulated lesson. It was not rehearsed but the youngsters knew what was happening. The lesson illustrates poor disciplinary techniques, and the tape itself has instructions on what to watch for, how to categorize the analysis of the lesson, how to spot the weaknesses, what to do to improve the weaknesses and so forth. We have that as part of the Wingate Teacher Training Institute also.

We have done a lot of things like that.

Ms. McCord. What recommendations would you have for the colleges of education to make the teachers that are coming into this field better prepared to deal with this?

Dr. Schain. Well, one of the first things I would recommend is to hire more people who are less research oriented and more clinically oriented. You cannot teach a teacher how to teach by research.

Research, at best, and it is valuable, is supportive. It does not teach people to teach. Most of the college professors of education have rarely been in the kinds of schools that they are training teachers for.

You need research, and it is valuable, but not as the base for training teachers. So I certainly would make that as the first

recommendation. And then I would go further, Ms. McCord. Unfortunately, most teaching that I have seen outside of my geographic area, consists of two things. It is either telling by the teacher, or reciting. You know, the regurgitation process, "Who was the first President?" "Washington."

There is little of the kind of teaching that I would call effective teaching, where you stimulate youngsters to think, where they absorb information because it is derived through a discovery process, where they will learn their scholarship more effectively.

Now, a teacher, you know, is a five-sided person. He is an artist, he is an actor, he is a scholar, he is a human being, he is a personality. Now, you have got to be able to do this. We have done it at Wingate. I consider myself an expert in that field. I am sure there are many others in the country, but that is the kind of person you need if you are going to train teachers.

I have been through schools and school systems as a consultant to train teachers, and I tell you, in too many cases, the principal does not know anything about teaching. How is he going to teach teachers?

Ms. McCord. What would you say is the proper role, if anything, for the Federal Government in this area?

Dr. Schain. The ideas the Federal Government has put into operation by its laws are generally good. For example, bilingualism, great. Teacher Corps, great. The trouble is who does it? The Teacher Corps is taken over by vested interests who know nothing about teacher training, and they are the experts all of the sudden. The wrong people. Good ideas, good intentions, wrong people.

You know, the secret to good teaching is a good teacher. The secret to making a good teacher is a good supervisor, but the wrong people get hold of the programs and it becomes their vested interest.

They can give out assignments, jobs. People become experts overnight. It does not happen that way. Maybe that is one reason why Wingate has done very well. We work with what works, with what is effective. We have no window dressings; we are no Potemkin Village.

And I see too many things going on in the country that I consider educational nonsense. The Federal Government has to have more practical people, schooled practical people monitoring these programs to see that the right programs are set up by people who know what they are doing and that they are carried out effectively. Who is doing it?

Ms. McCord. Here you have a whole new authority which does not trigger in until October 1, targeting on basic skills as a demonstration type of a program. Is that effective? In your opinion, would it do anything?

Dr. Schain. I am not familiar with the specifics. Would you brief me on that please?

Ms. McCord. It is a very open-ended authorization with a funding recommendation of $35 million nationwide.

Dr. Schain. Going to? Who gets the money?

Ms. McCord. For local school districts and states to develop and strengthen basic skills.

Dr. SCHAIN. That is just what I am talking about. It is going to fall into the hands of the people who have been doing a poor job anyhow, in the main, and they are just going to have more money to spend in hiring people to do a job.

You know, money is essential. Without money, you really cannot do too much, but money does not do the job itself.

Ms. MCCORD. What can do the job, I guess, is my question. If you do not think that is an effective approach, what could be done that would make some difference?

Dr. SCHAIN. Show me who is doing it and I will tell you. You know, I bring a story here which may not be completely responsive, but it is the elementary school teacher teaching gender, and she holds up a picture of a man, and says to the boy, "What is this?" "A man."

"Male or female?" The kid says, "Male." The teacher says, "Very good." Holds up another picture of a woman. She says, "Mary, what is this?" "Woman."

"Male or female?" The youngster says, "Female."

"Very good." The teacher holds up a picture of a cat. She says, "John, what is this?" He says, "A cat." She says, "Male or female?" He said, "Show me the cat."

You are asking me what could be done with that money. A lot. But who is going to do it? Have they a track record that shows that they know what they are doing and have been doing effective work? Can they show you something or are you just giving them a grant of money and saying, "Go ahead and improve basic skills." Have they been able to do it so far? If they were, would you be giving them money?

Ms. MCCORD. But if Wingate, which is a proven success story, were to get some of this money, what could you do with it to replicate what you are doing in Brooklyn and have impact in St. Louis, Mo.?

Dr. SCHAIN. Of course, you are talking about Wingate which does not get the money. The school district would get it. I say this honestly, Ms. McCord; I say this in response to your question, and I do not intend to make myself the greatest thing since 7-Up, because I am not, but if you say to me, "Here is x dollars for a national program. Set it up. Monitor it." I will guarantee you results.

Ms. MCCORD. Could you provide for the record what that program would be? Could you outline it for us, if we were to give you $35 million?

Dr. SCHAIN. Yes, if we can get together and discuss what the goals of the program will be. If we want, for example, to improve reading capability of our youngsters in the high schools, as an example, yes, I can set up specifics. I can send it to you within a week, and you know what those specifics will essentially be? The components of the Wingate program.

But if I just gave it to you, it would be of little value because it is who is doing it and who is monitoring it. If you say to me, "Yes, OK"—I will send it to you—"by the way, do it," I will guarantee you results within a year, and I do not guarantee lightly. So whenever you are ready to turn it over——

Ms. MCCORD. Pass over $35 million, I will let you know.

Dr. SCHAIN. I will settle for 34, but it could be done.

Mr. SMITH. I am interested in the students coming into the ninth grade in the alpha program. How exactly does that work? How do you sort out the interests of these kids that are just coming in?

Dr. SCHAIN. There are several components, to the program. Among them are selection of staff, the training of staff, the development of curriculum, and the selection of your students for the program.

We select students for alpha, for example, based on their past records: their guidance records, their academic records, their attendance records. This year we have isolated approximately 225 students in that program who meet the kind of criteria that the guidelines have set up.

If you take anybody in, then your program has no value. It has to be geared for the type of student you are looking to serve. Now, they are programed for basic academic subjects. For example, they have English, reading, math, science. We do not give them social studies the first year because, instead of that, we load them with three periods a day in career areas.

In Wingate, we have three major career areas. One is industrial arts which takes in printing, house construction, jewelry-making, auto shop, aerospace, commercial art. The second area is business education, including stenography and typing bookkeeping, data processing, office machines, distributive education, marketing, and salesmanship. The third is home arts, such as home nursing, cooking, grooming, and a new and better you.

Every youngster in that program is given a 6-week exposure to every one of these areas during his first year. In addition to that programmatic planning, we have a guidance counselor assigned to those youngsters, who follows them like a hawk. We have a coordinator and an assistant who watches and monitors them every day. As soon as a kid is absent, we call his home. The guidance counselor is in school 1 hour earlier than his normal time and calls the homes of the students who were absent the previous day. The response is excellent.

The kids get to feel that you care. This is very important. The kids get to feel that you are interested in what happens to them also very important. They see that there is something for them, and most of them have lost hope. They were battered around for 8 or 9 years.

Now, we are starting with very, very high risk kids. These kids had been truants for 8 years. In the first year so far—this is the first full year; we started a pilot program a year and a half ago—we have cataloged approximately a 60 percent recovery rate. Now, that is good. These youngsters, about 60-percent of them, are not functioning, and during the year, as soon or as late as it occurs, the counselor and the coordinators, together with the teachers who meet regularly, then begin to plan this kids program for the 10th grade. If he likes industrial arts, we will have him virtually major in that area. And while 60 percent recovery rate is good, it is not good enough for us, because we can go to 70 and 80. You know, you are never finished. That is the alpha program.

Ms. MCCORD. That is it. Thank you, Dr. Schain. We appreciate your time and your patience.

Dr. SCHAIN. Thank you very much.

[The prepared statement of Dr. Schain follows:]

STATEMENT FOR U. S. SENATE SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS, AND HUMANITIES

May 22, 1979

Rx FOR THE SCHOOLS OF THE EIGHTIES

By Dr. Robert L. Schain, Principal,
George W. Wingate High School
Brooklyn, New York

AS WE APPROACH THE EIGHTIES, WE HAD BETTER TAKE A GOOD LOOK AT OUR SCHOOLS WITH A VIEW TOWARD RESTORING EDUCATIONAL EXCELLENCE AND PUBLIC CONFIDENCE.

INITIALLY, WE MUST UNDERSTAND WHY AND HOW OUR SCHOOLS FAILED IN THE 1970's. BASICALLY, IT WAS BECAUSE OF THE FAILURE OF EDUCATORS TO ACT DESPITE GROWING SIGNS OF IMPENDING CHANGES THAT WOULD FACE THE SCHOOLS IN THE 1970's. THE RISING URBAN UNREST AND THE RACIAL CONFRONTATIONS OF THE 1960's, THE DISENCHANTMENT WITH THE VIETNAM WAR AND THE PROTEST MOVEMENTS THAT FOLLOWED, AND THE INCREASING NUMBERS OF MINORITY AND FOREIGN-BORN STUDENTS WHO ENTERED THE URBAN SCHOOLS SHOULD HAVE GIVEN CLEAR WARNING THAT THE SCHOOLS OF THE 1970's WOULD FACE PROBLEMS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING THAT WERE QUITE DIFFERENT FROM THOSE OF PREVIOUS DECADES.

UNFORTUNATELY, TOO MANY EDUCATORS WAIT TO REACT RATHER THAN TO ACT. IN THE CASE AT HAND, THEY WAITED UNTIL THE PROBLEMS APPEARED IN THE SCHOOLS, AND THE FACT WAS THAT EDUCATORS WERE NOT TRAINED TO DEAL WITH THE PROBLEMS ENDEMIC TO THE NEW BREED OF YOUNGSTER THEY WERE CONFRONTED WITH IN THE 1970's. THE CURRICULUM AND METHODS OF TEACHING WHICH WERE EFFECTIVE IN PREVIOUS DECADES SIMPLY DID NOT APPLY TO STUDENTS OF THE 1970's. THUS, THESE UNPREPARED EDUCATORS REACTED IN SEVERAL WAYS---ALL DOOMED TO FAIL.

THE AGE-OLD "COP-OUT" WAS A FIRST LINE OF DEFENSE, I.E., "WHY BLAME THE SCHOOLS FOR SOCIETY'S PROBLEMS?", "HOW CAN SCHOOLS BE EXPECTED TO DO WHAT THE FAMILY AND SOCIETY CANNOT DO?" A SECOND RESPONSE WAS TO BLAME THE STUDENTS. "THESE KIDS CAN'T LEARN", "GET THE FEW BUMS OUT OF THE SCHOOLS AND THE REST OF THE KIDS WILL DO WELL", "GIVE US MORE SECURITY GUARDS". EDUCATORS ALSO TURNED TO "BAND-AID" RESPONSES IN THE SEARCH FOR QUICK CURES OR EDUCATIONAL PANACEAS,

E.G., PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION, OPEN CLASSROOMS, STREET ACADEMIES, "RELEVANT" OR SOCIALLY ORIENTED COURSES, SOCIAL PROMOTIONS, PEER GROUP PROGRAMS, AND "RAP" COURSES.

DESPITE THESE ATTEMPTS, THE SCHOOLS' TROUBLES INCREASED AS THE SEVENTIES WORE ON. THE "BAND-AIDS" FAILED TO STOP THE "BLEEDING". RESULTS SHOWED THAT EDUCATORS TOOK THE WRONG APPROACH TO THE SCHOOL PROBLEMS OF THE SEVENTIES. MY EXPERIENCE AS PRINCIPAL OF GEORGE W. WINGATE HIGH SCHOOL IN BROOKLYN, NEW YORK, DEMONSTRATES THAT THERE WAS---AND IS---A BETTER WAY. I BECAME THE PRINCIPAL OF WINGATE HIGH SCHOOL ON JUNE 15, 1970. WINGATE HAD ONE OF THE WORST REPUTATIONS IN NEW YORK CITY. IT WAS EXPERIENCING ALL THE PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH THE STEREOTYPE OF THE TYPICAL INNER-CITY SCHOOL, E.G., TRUANCY, DRUGS, CUTTING, DISRUPTIONS, POOR ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, LOW MORALE, LOSS OF COMMUNITY SUPPORT, RACIAL CONFLICTS, ETC. IN FACT, ONE OF MY COLLEAGUES IMPLORED ME NOT TO ACCEPT THIS APPOINTMENT BECAUSE, AS HE PUT IT, WINGATE WAS UNGOVERNABLE AND IT WAS A HEART-ATTACK SCHOOL.

AS I SOON FOUND OUT, WINGATE WAS A SCHOOL IN DEEP TROUBLE. NOW, HOWEVER, I CAN SAY VERY PROUDLY THAT GEORGE W. WINGATE HIGH SCHOOL--A SCHOOL OF 3300 STUDENTS--IS ONE OF THE MOST EFFECTIVE HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE NATION. IT WAS A LONG AND DIFFICULT PROCESS CHANGING THE SCHOOL BUT THE RESULTS HAVE BEEN MOST GRATIFYING. ALLOW ME TO DISCUSS BRIEFLY SOME OF THE FACTORS THAT LED TO THE REBIRTH OF GEORGE W. WINGATE HIGH SCHOOL.

IN MY PLAN TO IMPROVE THIS CHAOTIC EDUCATIONAL PICTURE, I REJECTED ANY "BAND-AID" APPROACHES. I REJECTED THE PALLIATIVES AND RESOLVED TO WORK ON PLANS TO DEAL WITH THE BASIC PROBLEMS. TO USE AN ANALOGY, I WOULD NOT PUT OIL OF CLOVES ON A TOOTH THAT HURT; I WOULD FIND OUT WHY THE TOOTH HURT AND TAKE

MEASURES TO ELIMINATE THE CAUSE OF THE PAIN. ACCORDINGLY, I ORGANIZED THE STAFF, STUDENTS, PARENTS, AND COMMUNITY LEADERS IN EFFORTS TO PLAN FOR DEALING WITH EACH PROBLEM, PROVIDE FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF THESE PLANS, AND TO MONITOR THE PROGRESS OF THE PROGRAMS TO EVALUATE THEIR SUCCESS OR FAILURE.

THIS OVERALL SCHEME REQUIRED SEVERAL PRELIMINARY STEPS. FIRST, THE DECLINE OF THE SCHOOL HAD TO BE HALTED. IMMEDIATE MEASURES WERE REQUIRED TO DEAL WITH CRITICAL PROBLEMS THAT AROSE ALMOST DAILY. STUDENTS HAD TO UNDERSTAND THAT THERE MUST BE DISCIPLINE IN THE SCHOOL. THE ITEM THAT OCCUPIED THE MOST TIME ON MY AGENDA THE FIRST YEAR WAS CONDUCTING HEARINGS THAT RESULTED FROM STUDENT DISRUPTIONS AND INDIVIDUAL BREACHES OF DISCIPLINE. THE STAFF HAD TO BE CONVINCED--BY ACTIONS RATHER THAN BY WORDS--THAT I WAS SUPPORTIVE AND THAT I "KNEW WHAT I WAS DOING". PARENTS AND COMMUNITY LEADERS SIMILARLY HAD TO BE CONVINCED THAT I WAS AN EFFECTIVE PRINCIPAL WHO WOULD LEAD THE SCHOOL TOWARD EDUCATIONAL EXCELLENCE.

I THEREFORE PLANNED TO SET UP A PROCESS WHICH, IF IMPLEMENTED PROPERLY, WOULD LEAD TO PROGRESS. THIS "PROCESS" INVOLVED EVERYONE IN DECISION-MAKING AND IN THE IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION OF DECISIONS. I ALSO MAINTAINED AN OPEN CLIMATE WHICH ENCOURAGED INITIATIVE AND CREATIVITY. I MADE VERY CLEAR TO ALL SEGMENTS OF THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY THAT I WOULD BE FIRM AND FAIR. FRANKLY, I FELT THAT IF WE COULD DEAL EFFECTIVELY WITH THE SOURCE OF THE PROBLEMS, WE WOULD FIND THAT MUCH OF THE DISRUPTION, TRUANCY, CUTTING, AND ACADEMIC UNDERACHIEVEMENT WOULD DECLINE AND THAT AN ATMOSPHERE OF POSITIVE DISCIPLINE AND A RECORD OF POSITIVE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT WOULD RESULT.

WE THEN BEGAN TO ATTACK THE BASIC PROBLEMS. WE FOUND WHY STUDENTS WERE DISRUPTIVE AND SET UP SPECIAL PROGRAMS TO DEAL WITH THE CAUSES OF POOR BEHAVIOR.

FOR EXAMPLE, WE FOUND THAT MANY STUDENTS ENTERING WINGATE WERE FUNCTIONAL ILLITERATES. HOW COULD SUCH STUDENTS BE EXPECTED TO FUNCTION WELL IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASSES WHEN THEY COULDN'T READ? ACCORDINGLY, WE SET UP A SPECIAL MINI-SCHOOL FOR SUCH STUDENTS--A PROGRAM THAT ADDRESSED ITSELF TO THIS PROBLEM AND THAT MADE PROVISION FOR HELPING STUDENTS READ WELL ENOUGH TO FUNCTION IN HIGH SCHOOL. OF COURSE, THIS PROGRAM REQUIRED A GREAT DEAL OF EFFORT AND TRAINING, BUT IT SURELY WORKED AND ACHIEVED ITS PURPOSE. WE ALSO DEVELOPED OTHER READING PROGRAMS THAT INVOLVED EVERY STUDENT AND EVERY TEACHER IN THE SCHOOL. THERE ARE OTHER EXAMPLES OF OUR EFFORTS TO DEAL WITH THE SCHOOL'S PROBLEMS BY PROGRAMMATIC METHODS. WE SET UP A SOPHISTICATED PROGRAM TO DEAL WITH THE MANY FOREIGN-BORN STUDENTS AT WINGATE--A PROGRAM THAT WENT FAR BEYOND THE "USUAL" BILINGUAL PROGRAM. ESPECIALLY INNOVATIVE WAS THE WINGATE ENGLISH ACADEMY---A PROGRAM THAT WAS BASED ON THE ISRAELI ULPAN, DESIGNED TO PROVIDE A TOTAL IMMERSION IN ENGLISH FOR NEWLY ARRIVED FOREIGN-BORN STUDENTS. WE ALSO SET UP WINGATE PREP FOR SUPER-ANNUATED STUDENTS WHO WOULD UNDOUBTEDLY DROP OUT OF SCHOOL WITHOUT THE "HOPE" THIS PROGRAM GAVE THEM--THE POSSIBILITY OF EARNING A DIPLOMA WITHIN A RELATIVELY SHORT TIME. TO GIVE ONE MORE EXAMPLE OF A PROGRAM THAT DEALT WITH STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS, I CITE OUR ALPHA PROGRAM. THIS PROGRAM ATTEMPTS TO HELP ENTERING STUDENTS WHOSE ACADEMIC RECORDS WERE TOTAL FAILURES IN THEIR LOWER SCHOOLS. THE ALPHA PROGRAM ATTEMPTS TO FIND THE REAL INTERESTS OF THESE YOUNG STUDENTS BEFORE THEY GO ANY FURTHER DOWN THE ROAD TO FAILURE, AND HAVING FOUND SUCH INTERESTS, TO PLAN THEIR PROGRAMS TO BUILD ON THESE INTERESTS.

WE ALSO ADDRESSED OURSELVES TO OTHER ASPECTS OF "TURNING STUDENTS ON" TO EDUCATION. WE FOUND AREAS OF INTEREST AMONG GROUPS OF STUDENTS AND BUILT PROGRAMS AROUND THESE AREAS. FOR EXAMPLE, WE SET UP A MEDICAL SCIENCE PROGRAM

SEVERAL YEARS AGO, WHICH HAS BURGEONED INTO A MAJOR CURRICULAR AREA AT WINGATE. A FLIGHT TRAINING PROGRAM ACTUALLY TEACHES STUDENTS TO FLY. OUR LEGAL INSTITUTE ENLISTS STUDENTS WHOSE CAREER INTERESTS INVOLVE LEGAL AREAS. OUR TELEVISION-RADIO INSTITUTE TRAINS STUDENTS FOR TECHNICAL AND CREATIVE CAREERS IN THIS INDUSTRY. OUR PRINTING PROGRAM PREPARES STUDENTS FOR JOBS IN THIS IMPORTANT INDUSTRY. STUDENTS ACTUALLY PUBLISH BOOKS WHICH THE SCHOOL SELLS. TWO SUCH BOOKS--BOTH TEACHER TRAINING BOOKS, WRITTEN AND EDITED BY MEMBERS OF OUR STAFF--HAVE BEEN PUBLISHED BY STUDENTS IN THIS PROGRAM. SALES FROM THESE BOOKS HAVE BROUGHT NEEDED FUNDS TO THE SCHOOL.

WE CONTINUE TO PLAN FOR IMPROVEMENTS. ALREADY, WE PLAN TO BEGIN NEW PROGRAMS IN SEPTEMBER, 1979. WE HAVE SET UP A SCHOLARS' PROGRAM AROUND THE GREAT BOOKS OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION, A BEHAVIORAL STUDIES INSTITUTE, AND A LABOR STUDIES INSTITUTE (WHICH ALREADY HAS THE INTEREST OF THE AFL-CIO AND THE NATIONAL ENDOWMENT FOR THE HUMANITIES).

THIS LIST OF PROGRAMS (AND OTHER PROGRAMS I HAVE NOT MENTIONED) IS THE TIP OF THE ICEBERG. ESSENTIAL TO THE PROCESS FOR IMPROVEMENT WERE THE ASSOCIATIVE ACTIVITIES THAT ACCOMPANY THE PROGRAMS. FOR EXAMPLE, PROGRAMS OF TEACHER TRAINING WERE VITAL. TEACHERS HAD TO BE TRAINED--OR RETRAINED--TO DEVELOP TEACHING TECHNIQUES THAT WERE EFFECTIVE FOR STUDENTS OF THE SEVENTIES. THIS REQUIRED MANY SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES TO TRAIN TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS AT WINGATE. THOSE WHO IMPROVED, WE ENCOURAGED AND RETRAINED; THOSE WHO FAILED TO PERFORM SATISFACTORILY AFTER MANY ATTEMPTS HAD BEEN MADE TO HELP THEM, WERE RATED UNSATISFACTORY AND/OR SEPARATED FROM THE SCHOOL. WE ALSO SET UP THE WINGATE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTE THAT HAS ENGAGED IN ACTIVITIES FOR THE TRAINING OF OUR STAFF AND THE STAFFS OF MANY OTHER SCHOOLS IN AND OUT OF NEW YORK CITY.

ALSO IMPORTANT WAS THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOUND RELATIONS WITH STUDENTS AND STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS, WITH PARENTS, AND WITH COMMUNITY LEADERS. WE HAVE AN ACTIVE P.T.A. AND AN EXTREMELY EFFECTIVE CONSULTATIVE COUNCIL. ENCOURAGEMENT OF STAFF INVOLVEMENT AND CREATIVITY WAS A PRIORITY. FINALLY, I MUST NOTE THE AMBIENCE OF THE SCHOOL--ONE OF FRIENDLINESS, HUMANITY, AND COOPERATION.

WHAT WE ARE REALLY TALKING ABOUT IS LEADERSHIP. SIMPLY STATED, LEADERSHIP IS THE ABILITY TO ORGANIZE THE PEOPLE AND RESOURCES AVAILABLE FOR MAXIMUM EFFECTIVENESS, OR GETTING THE MOST OUT OF WHOM AND WHAT YOU HAVE TO WORK WITH. LEADERSHIP, THEN IS THE VITAL INGREDIENT.

THE RESULTS OF OUR EFFORTS AT WINGATE HIGH SCHOOL HAVE BEEN EVIDENT FOR SOME TIME. ALL THE DATA, HARD AND SOFT, HAVE DEMONSTRATED THAT WE HAVE A SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL EXCELLENCE. ALL REPORTS BY VISITORS AND BY THE MASS MEDIA HAVE TESTIFIED TO THE FACT THAT WINGATE IS NOW ONE OF THE FINEST HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE NATION. WE HAVE DEMONSTRATED CLEARLY THAT INNER CITY SCHOOLS CAN AND SHOULD BE EFFECTIVE LEARNING INSTITUTIONS. MUCH OF WHAT WE HAVE DONE IS REPLICABLE.

THE DIRECTION FOR THE EIGHTIES IS CLEAR. NOW, EDUCATORS MUST HAVE THE FORESIGHT TO RESTRUCTURE THEIR SCHOOLS FOR THE EIGHTIES BASED ON THEIR EXPERIENCES OF THE PAST. MORE SOPHISTICATED METHODS OF TEACHING YOUNGSTERS TO READ AND WRITE, WHILE AT THE SAME TIME ACHIEVING MASTERY IN SCHOLARSHIP MUST BE DEVELOPED AND TAUGHT BY STAFFS WHO HAVE BEEN TRAINED IN THESE TECHNIQUES. MARKETABLE SKILLS MUST BE DEVELOPED AND CAREER-ORIENTED PROGRAMS MUST BE AN AREA OF GREAT CONCENTRATION. PROGRAMS MUST BE INSTITUTED BASED ON IDENTIFIED LEARNING NEEDS OF STUDENTS, E.G., BILINGUAL STUDENTS AND STUDENTS WHO HAVE SERIOUS DEFICIENCIES IN THE BASIC SKILLS. STUDENTS WITH UNSUCCESSFUL SCHOOL

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RECORDS MUST HAVE SPECIAL COUNSELLING AND PROVIDED WITH EVERY OPPORTUNITY TO IDENTIFY CAREER AREAS ON WHICH TO BASE ACADEMIC PROGRAMS. CURRICULUM AREAS BASED ON STUDENT INTERESTS MUST BE PLANNED TO FORM CORES OF SCHOOLS-WITHIN-SCHOOLS, EACH CONSISTING OF STUDENTS WITH SIMILAR INTERESTS. THIS WOULD MAGNETIZE EACH SCHOOL AROUND ACADEMIC CAREER AREAS, E.G., MEDICAL SCIENCE, LEGAL STUDIES, BUSINESS CAREERS. FINALLY, EDUCATIONAL LEADERS MUST DEVELOP PROCEDURES THAT WOULD INVOLVE THE ENTIRE SCHOOL COMMUNITY--STUDENTS, TEACHERS, PARENTS, AND COMMUNITY LEADERS--IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN ORDER TO GET MAXIMUM INPUT AND COMMITMENT.

NONE OF THIS RESTRUCTURING CAN BE DONE EFFECTIVELY UNLESS AND UNTIL TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS ARE RETRAINED TO IMPLEMENT SUCH PROJECTS. THERE ARE A NUMBER OF SUCCESSFUL EDUCATORS WHO, THROUGH EXPERIENCE, HAVE DEVELOPED THE KIND OF EXPERTISE DESCRIBED ABOVE. SUCH EDUCATORS COULD BE USED TO RETRAIN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN THE SKILLS AND PROCESSES NEEDED FOR THE SCHOOLS OF THE EIGHTIES. WITH THE PROPER TRAINING, IT WILL ONCE AGAIN BECOME POSSIBLE FOR EDUCATORS TO "TURN STUDENTS ON" TO LEARNING AND TO RETURN TO THE ROAD OF EDUCATIONAL EXCELLENCE.

PERHAPS THIS PRESCRIPTION FOR THE SCHOOLS OF THE EIGHTIES WILL MAKE MOOT THE CURRENT DEBATE ABOUT COMPETENCY TESTING. IF SCHOOLS RESTRUCTURE THEMSELVES TO BECOME EFFECTIVE LEARNING INSTITUTIONS, STUDENTS WILL DEVELOP MANY COMPETENCIES AS THEY PROGRESS THROUGH THE GRADES. COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION (WHICH IS REALLY A REDUNDANCY) WILL ELIMINATE PUBLIC CONCERN ABOUT THE LACK OF "BASIC" COMPETENCIES THAT EXIST TODAY. STUDENTS WILL HAVE LEARNED TO MASTER READING, WRITING, AND MATHEMATICS LONG BEFORE THE ISSUE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION ARISES.

IF WE DEVELOP EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS IN THE EIGHTIES, WE WILL HAVE REASON TO BELIEVE THAT STUDENTS WILL UNDERSTAND THAT THE QUALITY OF THEIR LIVES DEPENDS ON WHAT THEY LEARN IN SCHOOL. THE LOSS OF SUCH RESPECT FOR LEARNING WAS, UNFORTUNATELY, AN OUTCOME OF THE TROUBLES OF THE SEVENTIES. WE CANNOT AFFORD ANOTHER SUCH DECADE, FOR IT WOULD THREATEN OUR VERY EXISTENCE AS A GREAT NATION.

Ms. McCord. The hearing is now adjourned.

[Whereupon, at 12:30 p.m., the subcommittee adjourned at the call of the Chair.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

TUESDAY, JUNE 19, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES,
COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Washington, D.C.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to call, in room 4232 of the Dirksen Senate Office Building, at 9:38 a.m., Senator Thomas F. Eagleton presiding pro tempore.

Present: Senators Eagleton and Pell.

OPENING STATEMENT OF SENATOR EAGLETON

Senator EAGLETON. Good morning, ladies and gentlemen. The Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities is again in session to continue its hearings with respect to basic skills achievement in our Nation's schools.

As those who have followed these hearings know, a great deal of testimony has been heard about the improvement of reading performance in the early grades, and the subsequent decline in ability to translate the early decoding skills into more complex processes of comprehension of more difficult material. However, reading is not the only basic educational skill necessary for survival in today's complex world.

Today, the subcommittee will receive testimony on writing, a skill which perhaps some in this technological age no longer consider basic. I disagree. Too often, bright, well-educated young people come into my office to interview for jobs on my staff. Most demonstrate a high degree of verbal competence, but are woefully inadequately prepared to express their thoughts in writing.

A 1976 survey conducted by the Education Commission of the States found that 50 percent of the 17-year olds sampled had been required to write only two or three pages in the previous 6 weeks of course work; only 12 percent had written a short paper; and 13 percent had done no writing at all. For a number of years, the scholastic aptitude test deleted the writing sample portion of the test. Is lack of attention to the skill the basis of the decline or are there more complex causal factors? I hope this morning's testimony will address these questions.

In addition, the subcommittee will hear testimony from the National Education Association, the largest teachers' union in this

country. Throughout these hearings, and indeed in virtually every study of education, it has been emphasized that the major determinant of a successful or unsuccessful school is the quality and behavior of the local school staff.

Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act seeks to recognize this fact. For a modest sum in terms of Federal expenditures, it sets forth three separate programs of competitive grants to support innovative basic skills projects in individual schools or school districts, enlist parents and volunteers in teaching basic skills to children, and help children, youth, and adults improve their basic skills outside the regular classroom setting. Within limited and broad outlines, the program allows development of programs at the local level.

A second part of the new program would distribute funds among the States on the basis of school age population to help them develop and coordinate basic skills plans, and through subgrants to fund activities in local schools.

Another provision of the 1978 amendments directly related to the basic skills program is concerned with measuring student achievement. At last count, 36 States had operational competency-based testing in the basic skills. Such a sweeping movement across the country is obviously of concern to the Federal Government. However, its proper role in this area is a very limited one of providing technical assistance to States and local school districts to develop their own capacity to conduct testing programs. Indeed, the Office of Education is specifically prohibited from requiring the use of a specific test or test questions.

On behalf of the subcommittee, I welcome today's witnesses and look forward to their contribution to the subject matter before us.

The first witness is Mr. James Gray, the director of the bay area/national writing project, University of California at Berkeley.

STATEMENT OF JAMES GRAY, DIRECTOR, BAY AREA/NATIONAL WRITING PROJECT, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY

Mr. GRAY. Thank you, Mr. Chairman. I am pleased to appear before this subcommittee.

I have prepared a statement that includes testimony some of which I will read and some summarize, also a listing of the national writing project sites that we have developed in the country over the last 3 years, primarily through support from the National Endowment for the Humanities. A timeline growth statement of the development of the national writing project and one of the most recent articles about the writing project—I am submitting those documents for the record.

The bay area and national writing projects are demonstrably effective staff development programs for improving the teaching of writing in our schools. They are based on the belief that the best teacher of teachers is another practicing and successful teacher. These successful teachers of composition, drawn from every level of instruction, elementary school through the university, are identified and trained as effective teachers of teachers in a university campus summer institute that taps the expertise of experienced,

practicing teachers, identifies the best practices of successful teachers and the best that is known from research and publication, and insists that teachers of composition should themselves write so that they can experience at first hand what it is that they are expecting of their students. Following these summer institutes, systematic continuing programs are planned, including year long in-service programs in the schools. The writing projects are cost-effective and broadly based, bringing together State and local educational agencies, universities, and schools in a united effort to solve the common problem of inadequate student writing.

The growth of the national writing project has been phenomenal. From the single parent project that started at the University of California, Berkeley, in 1973-74, the current network over the past 3 years has grown to 67 writing projects in 31 States across the Nation, involving 81 universities and the many school districts in their surrounding regions, with a score or more of additional projects now in the planning stages for 1980. Support for the national writing project, in addition to that provided by university and school funds, has come from a variety of sources, notably the National Endowment for the Humanities, private foundations, and private enterprise (even private citizens), State and regional educational agencies, State title IV-C programs, and in California from the State legislature.

I recommend that the particular design characteristics that have made the bay area writing project so universally acceptable by universities and schools in every section of the country be carefully examined by those responsible for implementing the provisions of title II of Public Law 95-561, basic skills improvement. The bay area/California national writing project is a model program for attacking the basic skills problem, a model not just for writing but for reading and mathematics instruction as well.

There were many reasons for initiating the bay area writing project. There was the immediate writing problem at the University of California, Berkeley, in 1973. Parallel to a national decline in SAT and ACT scores there was an increase in the number of students who needed to take the university's remedial program in composition, subject A. By 1973, close to 50 percent of the freshman class was held for subject A at a university that drew its freshman class only from the top 12½ percent of high school graduates.

Senator EAGLETON. When you say that 50 percent of the class was held for subject A——

Mr. GRAY. Required to take the course.

Senator EAGLETON. You mean that 50 percent was required to take that basic remedial course in writing?

Mr. GRAY. Right. Particularly galling at a university in a statewide master plan that drew its freshman class only from that top 12½ percent of high school graduates.

We knew that if we had a writing problem at the university, there certainly was a similar problem in the schools and also that a program to alleviate the problem would have to be designed in cooperation with the schools and with the full support of the schools. We were aware that if we were going to improve student

writing in the schools we would have to improve the teaching of writing. We knew that most teachers now in the schools had been inadequately prepared as teachers of writing, that whatever they did know about the teaching of writing had probably been learned through trial and error in the privacy of their own classrooms. We also knew that most teachers were unaware of recent developments and research in the field of written composition. We knew, in short, that any program designed to improve written composition in the schools had to be planned as a staff development program.

But by 1973, there already had been 10 years of staff development programs for English teachers: The English teacher specialist program in California and the NDEA (National Defense Education Act) English institutes in the Nation, to name only two. Valuable as these programs were for training a corps of leaders for the profession and for proving that the Federal Government could support education without the devilish results predicted by so many, hindsight revealed a number of shortcomings. The Bay area writing project model evolved out of this awareness of the shortcomings of past programs:

NDEA ENGLISH INSTITUTES

After deliberately screening teacher applicants to pick the best possible candidates, most NDEA Institutes simply treated these teachers as students and ran them through a series of college courses, seldom if ever tapping the expertise the teachers brought with them. This was the traditional top-down approach to staff development: the college professors who knew the most taught the schoolteachers who knew less, and they in turn would teach their students, who knew hardly anything at all. When the NDEA Institute summer programs were over, they were over. There was no followup program in the design, neither for the teachers who had been involved in the institutes nor for the teachers back home. There was no planned program for the trained teachers to teach others; there was no built-in ripple effect. The NDEA Institutes were basically college programs; they barely touched the schools. In their own way they were examples of the one-shot inservice programs so totally in disfavor today.

CALIFORNIA ENGLISH TEACHER SPECIALIST PROGRAM

The English teacher specialist program was designed to resolve the problems of the earlier NDEA Institutes. The expertise of teachers trained in the program was tapped, and there was the possibility of followup with a cadre of 200 trained teachers available to be used as consultants by schools and districts throughout California. But the program lacked focus. Like the earlier NDEA Institutes, the ETS program tried to improve English teaching in all of its dimensions simultaneously—reading, literature, language, composition, media, oral communication, et cetera. There was no concentration upon any specific problem. However, an even greater problem arose from the very size of California. The State was simply too large; there were too many school districts and far too many school teachers to be served by a statewide corps of consultants. The program had no geographic focus other than the whole

State. It lacked that regional focus that would have made it possible to saturate an area and touch all of the teachers, and thereby all of the students, within that area.

Rather than reading through this statement, which really is too long to submit to you this morning, let me summarize the basic characteristics of this program that I am suggesting is a model.

Trying to pick up on past shortcomings, the program truly did evolve out of 10 years' experience we had with staff development. What we do now in the Bay Area writing project model—and that model now is being adopted in 67 different writing projects in 31 States in the country at this point—we identify, through a process that takes us up to a year, the outstanding teachers we can find in the Bay Area already having success in their classrooms teaching writing, from all levels, elementary school, junior high, senior high, junior college, and university.

Senator EAGLETON. Can you tell me where you are, Mr. Gray? I am trying to follow you.

Mr. GRAY. Shall I continue reading? I am summarizing the next section, characteristics of the Bay Area writing project. I will read it, if you prefer.

Senator EAGLETON. No, you can give us the summary and talk a shade slower.

Mr. GRAY. All right, fine. We identify teachers who are having success in schools in a careful process, all levels, bring them together during the summer time, and in an institute that runs all day long, 5 days a week, train them as consultants to go out and teach other teachers. The program really is a very simple model. We train the best teachers we can find to teach other teachers in that Summer Institute that has that ripple effect, that backup, that followup program in the schools.

Currently, for instance, in Berkeley we are running 4 or 5 different programs in the summer time, up to 40 different programs in the schools during the year. These school programs run the year, not just one session. We contract with a district for a program that would run throughout the year, bringing district teachers together for meetings that might run every 2 weeks for a 3-hour session at a time. We are contracting now sustained programs, up to 800 teachers a year in the Berkeley program.

We teach teachers to teach teachers is the basic model.

Senator EAGLETON. Eight hundred teachers participate——

Mr. GRAY. Now in the program in its sixth year; we are contacting in excess of 800 teachers a year.

Senator EAGLETON. And you say some of this is done in the summer and some of this is year-around?

Mr. GRAY. But generally the summer program prepares a core of teachers as staff members of the project, who in turn will go out and direct workshops with other teachers in the schools during the academic year.

That model now is being picked up around the country in the various writing projects.

It's a regional model. When we designed this program, we had no interest in setting up a statewide or national effort, because we were convinced that if we were going to have any impact we had to confine ourselves. And so we did deliberately confine ourselves to

the nine counties rimming the San Francisco-Oakland Bay Area, 176 school districts just in those counties. We felt that if we had about 5 years in a confined geographic area, we could contact, we could touch all the teachers, all the districts, and thereby all of the students.

Ironically, now, we are coordinating a statewide and national program. But we are doing it on this model. So we have a federation, a network, of regional programs throughout the country. It's not the typical program out of the post-Sputnik period where, say, one university would come up with a design and peddle it nationwide. Berkeley had no interest in doing that. But the model is attractive.

And so we have this regional teacher-teaching-teachers program developing nationwide.

We are bringing together all of the teachers, elementary through college. Cynics indicated that that would never work—the elementary teachers would have been intimidated, the college teachers wouldn't possibly submit to a program where they were not allowed to teach it. We have had no problems. In fact, bringing all of the teachers together, elementary through college, we have had breakthroughs in the approach to the teaching of composition.

The process of writing is the process of writing, whether it is involving second- or third-grade students or involving high school or college students.

The program is cost-effective. Institutes have not cost a great deal. When we work with a school program, schools are paying us minimal fees for that.

In the process we have had a great deal of support. I would like to read this one section on page 7, "Cooperative Funding."

The national writing project demonstrates the integration of funding from different sources; each site within the network is supported by multiple funding sources:

(a) The inservice programs at all national writing project sites are cooperatively funded by the universities and the schools. At Berkeley, in a funding formula that is typical, the university supports all campus programs and the school districts support all school programs.

(b) The Bay Area writing project supports new writing project sites with gifts and matching funds provided by the National Endowment for the Humanities in grants we have received from NEH. The $15,000 from Bay Area writing project/NEH is matched by an equal (or more) number of dollars raised locally. So a new site can start out with a base of approximately $30,000, which would get it into its second year. This funding formula not only doubles the amount of money available through the Endowment—and it's a funding formula that I would like to recommend—but forces new sites to build a firm base of local support with matching funds. Examples here only. Local family foundations: the Kerr Foundation support for the Oklahoma writing project, the Winthrop Rockefeller Foundation support for the Mid-South writing project at Arkansas State University. Regional and county educational agencies: the Texas Hill County writing project is funded that way, the northern California writing project is funded that way. Private citizens supporting the New Orleans project. Private

enterprise—publishers, Omaha newspapers—supporting the Nebraska writing project. As examples.

Because the Bay Area writing was named "exemplary" by California title IV-C, school districts working in cooperation with the various California writing projects can apply for adoption grants to support the local writing project.

There is interest in coordinating the existing programs. Here is an example. In Virginia, the writing project, funded by the Bay Area writing project/NEH initially at George Mason University with $50,000, after that initial grant the Virginia project received a title IV-C development grant to establish a statewide network of six writing projects covering the State of Virginia. The director of that program is in the room.

All of the sites in the national writing project were designed as cooperative university/school efforts to improve writing ability. That cooperation was highly visible, with representatives from different segments of the educational community actively involved not only in planning programs but in carrying them out. Because of this collaboration the national writing project has been able to attract and maintain an unusually high degree of intersegmental support. This support includes administrators and faculty from all segments of higher education; public and private school teachers and administrators; directors of State and national professional organizations; superintendents and staff members of county, regional, and State departments of education; private citizens and program officers of private and Federal foundations; State legislators; and professional evaluators.

In summary, I would like to read a comment of one of the evaluators of the program.

In the 3 years since 1976, the Bay Area/California/national writing project has probably become the major staff development program in the country, featured frequently in the Nation's press and on network television. It has, as Paul Diederich (senior consultant for the Educational Testing Service) said of it, received that greatest of all evaluations—common acceptance in the marketplace. Diederich, invited by Michael Scriven, director of the Carnegie evaluation unit, to examine the Bay Area writing project, wrote in his evaluation:

> Now let me take a broader view of this whole problem of evaluating what BAWP has accomplished so far and is likely to accomplish in the near future. First, I believe you have something red hot going for you. I could not estimate how many meetings, workshops, and cooperative projects of English teachers I have participated in over the past 40 years, but I know that the usual attitude is one of polite skepticism interspersed with strong opposition. I seldom get the feeling that these teachers are going to do anything about the ideas expressed in these meetings. But here in the Bay Area you have a large group of intelligent and well-informed teachers whose attitudes toward BAWP methods of training and rejuvenating teachers are wildly enthusiastic. They not only are applying the ideas they have picked up in their own teaching but are also eager to spread the word with apostolic zeal. Even those who fear that the enthusiasm generated by this movement will not show up in the short papers written by students all hope that its beneficial effects will be proven by other means in the short run, and by improvement in writing in the long run.
>
> [BAWP] has stirred up English teachers to an extent that I have seldom if ever seen. I was closely involved in the work of some of the research and development centers established by Project English, but none of them started what one would

call a "movement". I now believe that the Bay Area Writing Project really has started a movement that is sweeping the country.

Although it may be hard to work out in practice, the basic idea [of BAWP] is so simple and practical that one feels instinctively that it ought to work. It is very difficult to make anything more than superficial changes in teacher training programs, and if something like thirty states are already adopting this program in one form or another, you can be pretty sure that a lot of critical, well-informed trainers of English teachers see value in it, regardless of differences in short test essays written by experimental and control classes. Thus it is well on its way toward passing the "test of the market," and we have only to wait a few years to find out whether it is a passing fad or a basic idea that will leave a mark on the training of English teachers long after the initial excitement has subsided. With all my bias in favor of hard data, I am already pretty sure that this is one of those ideas that will last—like Langdell's invention of the case method of teaching law, about 1870.

[End of my prepared statement.]

In examining the bill, reading over title II frequently, I have five or six questions, suggestions.

Senator EAGLETON. Are you back to your written text?

Mr. GRAY. I am on page 11, "Implementing Title II Basic Skills Improvement. . ."

In looking at the bill, the general support goes to State agencies and local LEA's—local schools, I would take that to mean, a typical definition of the term. I am wondering if a program like the bay area writing project/national writing project, nationwide now, could be supported by the bill. For instance, $2½ million to the national writing project matched by another $2½ million raised locally would give 100 sites $50,000 a year. Is that possible?

Is it specifically possible—could national writing project, say Berkeley as the lead agency, apply for national funds? Does it qualify?

The section 202 in the bill lists State and local LEA's as applicants.

There is a funding formula that requires applicants to demonstrate costsharing, interest in coordination of existing programs. Because the bay area writing project is using gifts and matching funding from NEH, we force local support; we don't just give them an outright grant that would then end the program when the grant runs out. Local support tends to keep those programs going after the initial grant has run its course. Local support forces directors to build a firm base in the local area. I am interested in that kind of support, I think it is the kind of support that would tend to keep a program going after the initial grant runs its course. $37 million, or whatever the figure will wind up to be, is not a lot of money. With a formula like that, that money could go further. I suggest if possible that that kind of funding be considered.

There are districts that are strapped, however. But it is possible for districts to reallocate funds, LEA's, existing funds and reallocate some priorities.

I am concerned in sections of the bill that are repeated frequently in a kind of sequence of activities——

Senator EAGLETON. Where are you now, Mr. Gray?

Mr. GRAY. On page 12, section (3). Stressed throughout the bill is a particular sequence of activities designed to improve basic skills instruction: an initial diagnostic needs assessment, followed by the establishment of goals and objectives, and finally the development of a comprehensive program. Farther down what seems to be a

priority listing are demonstration and training activities. I quarrel with this hierarchy for a variety of reasons, even though I suspect experienced program directors can find ways to make it work. All could so easily go awry. It was only a few years ago that teachers were spending inordinate amounts of time writing behavioral objectives, for example: 67 percent of the students will be able to read *x* with 82 percent accuracy. Needs assessments, particularly when administrators, teachers, students, aides, and parents are all involved, can take a year or more. Comprehensive plans could all too easily result in tomes resembling those fat curriculum guides districts were writing in the late 1950's and early 1960's. Once written, they were usually shelved or filed away in desk drawers, particularly by the majority of the teachers who were not involved in the writing.

I classify all of the above activities as mere preparation for the main act, teaching teachers better ways to teach the basic skills.

When the bay area writing project plans a school district inservice program, meetings are held with district administrators and teachers. Usually in a single meeting the district staff can tell us what their needs are:

> Most of our teachers admit to not knowing how to teach writing * * *. We need to know about ways of teaching the slower kids how to write * * *. The essays we get are terrible; they are pretentious, dull, wooden, pompous. How do you teach the essay?

In no time at all the needs, the objectives, and the goals of the district are clearly stated; and, within a month, a districtwide inservice program has started, showing the district teachers various approaches to the teaching of writing. We urge that the final guidelines be sensitive to past realities and stress that the purpose of title II is to improve student basic skill performance and not to prepare time-consuming and elaborate programs to set about doing so.

Throughout the bill there is special emphasis given to reading and mathematics by list of sections. One wonders is there any particular reason why programs to improve writing have not been equally emphasized?

There is emphasis throughout the bill on putting direct support into LEA's. That is extremely important. But there is a classic kind of problem LEA's have in applying for grants that somewhere along the line the Government and State ought to recognize. I spell out some of it.

Although individual schools need the support that title II now offers them—70 percent of State program funds must go directly to LEA's—there are historical grant application problems at the school level that need to be recognized and resolved. Classroom teachers, overworked as they are with five classes, homework to be corrected, and necessary preparation time, find it difficult to put in the hours it takes to write a proposal. As a result, the task—and it is frequently thought of as a task—is given over to some administrative aide in the central office who is unaware of the classroom problems. Administrators then complain that it is costing them $2,000 in staff time to write a proposal that will only generate $10,000. Also there never seems to be enough leadtime. Teachers are informed that the school can get some money, but the proposal

must be written by next Thursday at the latest. As a result, State agencies not infrequently find themselves with excess funds, and calls go out to districts to "get something into us quickly." That is a pattern repeated over and over again.

One solution that I would recommend that obviously comes from my 6 years' experience with the bay area writing project is to extend the definition of "LEA" to include regional programs. A regional project, as I mentioned earlier, has resources beyond those of any single school district. And regional programs can serve individual school districts. The bay area writing project is currently running between 30 and 40 district programs annually, serving in excess of 800 teachers a year. We have helped districts apply for title IV-C funds available to them as adoption grants on the BAWP model. We wrote a model title IV-C program; we made this model available to districts; we counseled teachers on the writing of proposals; and we generated proposal applications that would never otherwise have been written.

The resources of a district like the bay area, a region like the bay area, combined as one LEA, has virtues, I am suggesting, in the thinking about implementation beyond single school districts on the one level and large State agencies—State departments of education—on the other.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Gray. We have a few questions for you.

We have an attachment, an 8-page attachment, entitled "The National Writing Project," and those are the various regional programs that are emulating the bay area project, is that correct?

Mr. GRAY. That's right.

Senator EAGLETON. Do any States as a whole incorporate the bay area project?

Mr. GRAY. California. California has the California writing project supported by—it's the last three or four pages in this listing, pages 7, 8. Fifteen current sites supported by university systems and community colleges. It has support of the State Department of Education, the State LEA. The State Department of Education does not run the program, it is still coordinated out of Berkeley. Each program here is regional, though, in the sense that the bay area writing project is, the inland area project, the south basin project.

It is supported with title IV-C funds. Because our project was named exemplary, school districts throughout California can apply for adoption grants. Now, what we have arranged statewide is that school districts, working with their regional writing project, one of these 15 sites, will write an adoption grant on the bay area writing project from a model that we have already prepared that we wrote for the city of Oakland. We have made that model available statewide to districts. Districts will get together with title IV-C coordinators, writing these adoption grants; the funds go to LEA's, but the budgets and the programs are written in cooperation with each other and with the writing project in the area.

And so though the support goes to the LEA's, the support is really supporting the whole writing project region.

State Department of Education brings key teachers and the directors of these projects directors for biannual meetings; they support statewide, annual statewide, staff development conference.

There are currently two bills before the California legislature to support the program, an assembly bill and an augmentation of the region's budget. There is private citizen support, school district support, university support—it is intersegmental.

That's the best example.

Senator EAGLETON. So the State of California is broken up into 15 regions for the purpose of this program, is that right?

Mr. GRAY. Yes; Virginia now has six, New York has established similar things, there are three sites in Nebraska, there are two sites now in Arizona, there are three sites now in Texas—that regional statewide network is growing.

Senator EAGLETON. And how long is the entire State of California in the program?

Mr. GRAY. Since 1974, when the project began at Berkeley. Massive support statewide started in 1976 simultaneously with our grant from NEH.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, is there any way to measure or evaluate the program insofar as enhanced writing skills by the students in California, either in the bay area in particular, since it has been in operation there the longest, or in the State of California as a whole?

Mr. GRAY. This is probably the most densely evaluated program in the country today. We received a grant, the bay area project, from the Carnegie Corp. in 1976 simultaneously with our funding from NEH, to fund an evaluation of the program, an outside evaluation, directed by current national chairman of the AARP, Michael Scriven, one of the big names in evaluation in the country. That's a very involved program, funded at $200,000, heavy evaluation. It is not completed yet—it will come out in the fall; but I can quote him. The reports that we are getting are very, very favorable, and Scriven's current comments are that it is the best program going, it is the best horse in the race.

In all of the title IV-C programs we have pre- and post-testing on a holistic basis where students are doing actual writing samples before the program starts, later on after the program. In all of the campus programs of these sites, in all the school programs of these sites, there is heavy evaluation.

And the results that we are getting from the big Carnegie evaluation are very favorable.

Now, that kind of evaluation is going on also statewide, nationally. We have a massive study in New Jersey that was recently completed with phenomenal results; a smaller study on the Colorado project that was very positive; the new Virginia project has $40,000 built into it for evaluation on the statewide network that they just created for next year. There is heavy evaluation going on in the program.

Senator EAGLETON. You say the evaluation showed phenomenal results. Can you expand upon what these evaluations showed?

Mr. GRAY. On its main chance, what we are trying to do is improve the teaching of writing—improve writing in the schools by improving the teaching of writing. We created a staff development program that teachers accept, that teachers are convinced will improve their own teaching, that they can find no flaws with. We've got hard data on this kind of thing; 90 percent of the

teachers find the program extremely valuable; 98 percent wouldn't touch the model. We have writing-sample data from school districts and from the title IV-C program showing improvement in writing samples over the year from pretesting to post-testing. We have control group, experimental group writing sample tests going on, showing this kind of improvement.

Senator EAGLETON. Does the University of California at Berkeley still have a freshman remedial reading course?

Mr. GRAY. Yes, a program. And I think for perspective it is important for you to know that they have had that program since 1896—I mean, it says something about the problem of writing. Typically, the numbers of students held through that program run around 30, 33 percent, and the numbers are back to 30, 33 percent.

As the SAT/ACT scores declined in that period from 1964 on, that number kept increasing until 1974, when this project started, approaching 50 percent. Now, in the sixth year of our project that figure is back to 30, 33 percent, where it had always been and probably always will be, writing being that difficult to do.

Senator EAGLETON. In your prepared testimony you said before the project started it was 50 percent that were required to take that course, right?

Mr. GRAY. It had grown to that in those same years, 14 years or so, that the SAT scores were in decline, there was that kind of parallel growth in the number of students held through that requirement.

Senator EAGLETON. And now that has dropped to 33 percent?

Mr. GRAY. 30, 33 percent, right.

Senator EAGLETON. And you said that you think it will always be at that level. Why do you say that?

Mr. GRAY. Well, historically, it has been. I can't see any reason why it's going to change. Writing is tough; writing is probably the most difficult thing we ask students to do. I guess some of the mathematicians would argue with that. Writing is a difficult act.

The kind of writing expected of students at college level is difficult, where they have to work with ideas.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, why is it that the bay area project and its being emulated in 14 other regions in California—why is it it can operate only down to a 33 percent level, if we use the incoming freshmen at Berkeley as our test model? And these are the cream of the academic crop, coming out of the California high schools, I take it, the upper 12 percent of the high school graduating class.

Mr. GRAY. Well, I think we are a long way from solving the problem. I am personally still appalled by the figure. If we do in a master plan pull in only the top 12 percent and still one-third of them can't write a satisfactory essay, you know, that's still disturbing; there is a lot of work for us to do.

But we have seen improvement in the last 6 years. When we look at those failing papers, for instance, in 1974, we could put them into two different stacks; the smaller of the two looked as if the students had never written an essay before in their lives. That stack has almost disappeared. When we look at papers now, students obviously have had experience writing essays when they come to us. The other stack, the larger of the two, looked as if

students had never been held accountable for the writing that they had ever done. We still find particular problems there.

But we are noticing improvement—and it gives me optimism. Our program has in no way finished its work. We probably could go on forever. I think we should go on forever, the whole thrust of this program really is that teachers at the high school level and below need a possibility for constant, continuous, systematic training, retraining, constant training.

Senator EAGLETON. Mark Twain recommends that writing contain—and this is a quote from Mr. Twain—"here and there a touch of good grammar for picturesqueness." But in the view of some experts, the so-called return to basics vaults over writing to the skills of penmanship, vocabulary, spelling and usage that are thought necessary to precede composition. So much time is devoted to blocking and tackling drills that there is often no time to play the real game, namely, writing.

Now, my question is, What is the approach to the teaching of writing of the bay area project in the context of these two different approaches?

Mr. GRAY. We are an open program. One of the great reasons for the success of the project is because it has not had a party line. It would have been easy for us in 1974 for scholars throughout the country who at that time were involved in the teaching of writing, interested in the research in writing, to probably plan a program in sequence, the perfect program. You know, in a sense, the way MIT in a sense directed the PSSC physics program after Sputnik. Those scholars gathered together and put together the perfect physics program and taught it to the teachers.

Had we done that—and we could have done that probably with the knowledge we had at that time—we would have a lovely little document but I don't know if we would have had any impact or that anyone would have bought it.

What we try to do is identify good practice, whatever it happens to be. We bring in these teachers who seemingly are having success in their own classrooms in the kind of identification process that we have; we are pretty sure that that is the case.

In the course of the summer we have them teach each other what they know about the teaching of writing. Now, these are elementary teachers through university professors, all in one room, working together.

Out of that intensive Summer Institute there comes a kind of sifting to the top of particular approaches that are sensed to be on target, best practices.

It's those ideas that we try then to get out into the school. We are open to anything that works. We have our pedagogical rightwingers and leftwingers; we have our grammarians and our nongrammarians. Anything out there that seems to have an effect to improve the teaching of writing we are open to. We think teachers, then, ought to be introduced to these particular approaches.

And we do it primarily through teachers writing to the ideas. The only way we can teach teachers anything is to have them experience it. We don't come in with a program written out to lay on them; we don't come in with short talks that tell them what to

do. We come in with intensive work shops in the summertime and in the schools where teachers, introduced to an idea, are asked to write to it as if they were experiencing it as their own students might, and in the process these teachers become comfortable with that approach they hadn't known about before and are able to introduce it to their own students.

It's that process that takes time. And that is the process that is making the program successful.

Senator EAGLETON. Have any of the bay area techniques been incorporated into the regular teacher training curriculum of the University of California?

Mr. GRAY. Yes. We have in the last 2 years taken over the training of future teachers, a component program of the bay area writing project. In a program that is much smaller than it once was, 30 teachers that come into the graduate school of education to become English teachers are put through a bay area writing project program that emphasizes the teaching of writing, besides other things.

For instance, they have a 3 weeks institute that is similar to the institute the teachers have in the summertime. These young teachers are put into classrooms with the teacher corps that we have trained in the summer institute, so that the teams are together, the teacher trainers are the teachers that we have prepared in the bay area writing project. And then those teams of teacher consultants in the bay area writing project and the young teachers are asked to conduct small evaluation research studies in the course of the year on some approach to the teaching of writing.

So for the last 2 years we have had a preservice program in the teaching of writing as well as the inservice program that started in 1974.

Senator EAGLETON. The teacher center program is a relatively new Federal program for teacher development. Have you had any experience with any of these teacher centers, and, if so, could the bay area project model be applied to them?

Mr. GRAY. We had hoped so. We in fact wrote a proposal, teacher center proposal, for the bay area schools that we did not receive—we were rejected. We have had experience also with Teacher Corps.

But we thought certainly in the proposal that we wrote involving San Francisco, Berkeley, some suburban schools, the teacher center bill that we had prepared—proposal—was an example of how we could work.

There is interest in a math project on this model, for instance. The idea of bringing successful teachers together and have them teach others would be perfect for mathematics, particularly at the elementary school level. That's where the problem is in math. We have got elementary teachers in the classroom that are terrified by it. If we could bring those teachers together with experts who at their own level were successful, teachers in the elementary school who did know something about teaching math, and work those other elementary teachers through that same kind of model—we saw our model as a good model for a teacher center because it could extend beyond any particular field. Successful teachers teaching teachers who are less successful how to do their task.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you have any evidence that the inclusion of teachers of history and math and other non-English courses in the bay area project has had a positive effect on writing in the schools in which they teach?

Mr. GRAY. I don't know if this is the way to answer your question, but in the last 3 years we have had a keen interest in bringing in people other than English teachers into our program.

There is a movement—probably started in England, but now it is sweeping this country—called writing across the curriculum. There is a great deal of interest. We are now bringing in teachers from different fields of science, mathematics, social science, into the Summer Institute, and we are running programs in the schools for all teachers, not just English teachers, under the general notion that writing is a way of learning.

English teachers in the past have always said every teacher is a teacher of English, and that got us nowhere; that became a cliche. It was something expected that English teachers would say.

But if we can convince, as we can, because we have got evidence that would do so, that by writing about a subject as you are learning it, you learn that subject better than if you had not written about it—that's the angle we are using now in working with science, mathematics, and social science teachers.

And we have teachers now in those fields who are using writing as a key way of teaching their content. Students can learn math problems by writing their own better than by not doing so, for instance.

Writing is a way of learning.

Senator EAGLETON. How deeply has that trend permeated into the California public schools, that is, the teaching of writing plus the whole discipline?

Mr. GRAY. Increasingly we are receiving invitations from districts for programs for all staff—that's in the last 3 years. I see this movement, though, sweeping the country; it's not just a California movement. It's a major new trend in composition. Nationwide.

Senator EAGLETON. A criticism that our staff has heard of the bay area writing project is that it has had a minimal or maybe even nonexistent impact on the teaching of writing in inner-city schools.

Is the bay area project reaching minority students whose writing skills are in serious need of improvement?

Mr. GRAY. Yes. I mean, as I suggested, our project has no party line; we are open; we are working with all students at all levels, teachers at all levels.

From the very beginning we brought in outstanding teachers from the inner city as well as suburban schools. We are running projects in the inner city as well—we have had a massive impact in the city of Oakland. Two years ago one of our local television channels attached to ABC ran a three-part special on the program we had at McClymonds High School, which is an all-black school in Oakland, with the commentators excited by the thing they were showing us.

We have had from the very beginning as strong a program in the inner city as we have had in the suburbs or in the county, in the rural areas.

Senator EAGLETON. Insofar as—

Mr. GRAY. I mean, I don't know where you got that criticism; it doesn't bear up under examination of what we have done.

Senator EAGLETON. Insofar as enhanced writing skills are concerned, do you have any opinion as to whether television is a villain in this process?

Mr. GRAY. Well, I am sure everybody, every educator, is aware of those statistics, that students will spend more hours in front of a TV than they will in school.

Television is a passive act. Personally, it's hard to be definitive on this thing, although a number of people are outraged at the kind of thing television does because it is so passive. Students are watching TV, they are not involved; this is passively looking.

It's different from what it was before TV when we would read, but we had radio at that time, equally passive. It takes so many hours, though, away from things that they could be doing—reading, playing.

I am intrigued by the uses of television, though, in the future.

Senator EAGLETON. Are you familiar with the National Commission on Writing?

Mr. GRAY. Is that set up by the National Council of Teachers of English, one of their commissions?

Senator EAGLETON. Council on Basic Education.

Mr. GRAY. Yes; I am; in fact, they have been involved with us.

Senator EAGLETON. What has been your involvement with the Commission and what impact will that Commission have, as you see it?

Mr. GRAY. They are coming out with a book, now finished, that was written by one of their staff members, Mr. Howard and Clifton Fadiman. It had the initial title of "Empty Pages"—I am not sure whether it will stay with that title. In the writing of that book—this is a very conservative organization over the past; I find the book, after having looked at it, very, very open, very supportive.

There is a strong recommendation that programs like the bay area writing project are presenting a model for staff development in that particular book written by the Council on Basic Education.

Senator EAGLETON. In a 1976 survey by the National Assessment of Educational Progress, a large sample of 17-year-olds was asked how much writing they had done in all of their courses in the previous 6 weeks. The results were that 50 percent had written only one short paper, and 13 percent had done no writing at all. Thus only a quarter of the students had written anything more often than once every 2 weeks.

How can we get more writing done in our schools? Is the problem chiefly one of the time and difficulty involved in the correction of the papers? If so, what can we do about that?

Mr. GRAY. First of all, there are a lot of different statistics about the amount of writing done. There was another interesting one that came out of Myra Shaughnessy's study in New York where she was considering that English students were doing about 1,000 words a week, American students about 350, and the students that she was working with at CUNY when they went to open admissions about 180.

The problem of more writing is one that we have got to face, got to do something about. You obviously learn to write by writing.

There are a variety of reasons for the problems we have had statistics like that. Teachers have to be shown ways in which they can generate a lot of writing without having to face the business of taking all those papers home every week. Whenever the Conant Report was done, 10, 15, 20 years ago, there was that strong move to have English teachers have classes of where they would meet 100 students a day, so they couldn't be responsible for grading at least one essay a week. To do a good job in grading an essay takes about half an hour. You start playing with numbers and you realize the impossibility of expecting sometimes papers written to be treated that way.

But there are a lot of ways of solving that writing paper load. We can, by putting an emphasis on the process of writing, where students are drafting, redrafting, and putting a lot of emphasis on revision of papers, writing more and more over fewer papers. We can train students to process a lot of their own correction in the classroom; we can train small groups of students to react to each other's papers. There are ways of presenting the writing task in the schools and take the heat off teachers who cannot possibly take home these batches of papers every night. Every paper written does not have to be processed; students can do a great deal of writing with teachers looking at selected papers. Students can keep files; it's possible to look at papers during the classroom, if a class can be set up so other things can be happening simultaneously. With small groups in a classroom, a teacher can be working with individual students over their files in writing.

It's a matter of training teachers how to handle that kind of paper load. There are several ways in which that can be done. We can teach a great deal of writing by looking at smaller units, too. You do a lot of writing at the sentence level, teaching of writing at the sentence level.

[The prepared statement of Mr. Gray follows:]

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BAY AREA WRITING PROJECT
Supported by:
National Endowment for the Humanities
Carnegie Corporation of New York
California State Department of Education
University of California, Berkeley
Bay Area Schools

BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA 94720

Statement submitted to the Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities, Senator Thomas Eagleton, Chairman, for hearings on Title II, of Public Law 95-561--Basic Skills Improvement.

James Gray, Director:University of California
Berkeley/Bay Area Writing Project

A. Overview: The Bay Area, California, and National Writing Projects are demonstrably effective staff development programs for improving the teaching of writing in our schools. They are based on the belief that the best teacher of teachers is another practicing and successful teacher. These successful teachers of composition, drawn from every level of instruction--elementary school through the university, are identified and trained as effective teachers of teachers in a university campus Summer Institute that (a) taps the expertise of experienced, practicing teachers, (b) identifies the "best practices" of successful teachers and the best that is known from research and publication, and (c) insists that teachers of composition should themselves write so that they can experience at first hand what it is that they are expecting of their students. Following these Summer Institutes,systematic continuing programs are planned, including year-long inservice programs in the schools. The Writing Projects are cost-effective and broadly-based, bringing together state and local educational agencies, universities, and schools in a united effort to solve the common problem of inadequate student writing.

The growth of the National Writing Project has been phenomenal. From the single, parent project that started at the University of California

Berkeley in 1973-1974, the current network--over the past three years--has grown to sixty-seven Writing Projects in thirty-one states across the nation, involving eighty-one universities and the many school districts in their surrounding regions, with a score or more of additional projects now in the planning stages for 1980. Support for the National Writing Project, in addition to that provided by university and school funds, has come from a variety of sources, notably The National Endowment for the Humanities, private foundations and private enterprise (even private citizens), state and regional educational agencies, state Title IV-C programs, and in California, from the state legislature.

I recommend that the particular design characteristics that have made the Bay Area Writing Project so universally acceptable by universities and schools in every section of the country be carefully examined by those responsible for implementing the provisions of Title II of Public Law 95-561-Basic Skills Improvement. The Bay Area/California/National Writing Project is a model program for attacking the basic skills problem, a model not just for writing but for reading and mathmatics instruction as well.

B. Background: There were many reasons for initiating the Bay Area Writing Project. There was the immediate writing problem at UC--Berkeley in 1973. Parallel to a national decline in SAT and ACT scores there was an increase in the number of students who needed to take the university's remedial program in composition - Subject A. By 1973, close to 50 percent of the freshman class was held for Subject A at a university that drew its freshman class only from the top 12 1/2 percent of high school graduates. We knew that if we had a problem with writing at the university, there certainly was a similar problem in the schools and, also, that a program to alleviate the problem would have to be designed in cooperation with the schools and with the full support of the schools. We were aware that if we were to improve student writing in the schools we would have to improve the teaching of writing. We knew that most teachers now in the schools had been inadequately prepared as teachers

of writing, that whatever they did know about the teaching of writing had probably been learned through trial and error in the privacy of their own classrooms. We also knew that most teachers were unaware of recent developments and research in the field of written composition. We knew, in short, that any program designed to improve written composition in the schools had to be planned as a staff development program.

But by 1973 there already had been ten years of staff development programs for English teachers: the English Teacher Specialist Program in California and the NDEA (National Defense Education Act) English Institutes in the nation, to name only two. Valuable as these programs were for training a corps of leaders for the profession and for proving that the federal government could support education without the devilish results predicted by so many, hindsight revealed a number of shortcomings. The Bay Area Writing Project model evolved out of this awareness of the short-comings of past programs:

(1.) The NDEA English Institutes: (a) After deliberately screening teacher applicants to pick the best possible candidates, most NDEA Institutes simply treated these teachers as students and ran them through a series of college courses, seldom if ever tapping the expertise the teachers brought with them. This was the traditional top-down approach to staff development: the college professors who knew the most taught the school teachers who knew less, and they in turn, would teach their students who knew hardly anything at all. (b) When the NDEA Institute Summer Programs were over, they were over! There was no follow-up program in the design, neither for the teachers who had been involved in the institutes nor for the teachers back home. There was no planned program for the trained teachers to teach others; there was no built-in "ripple effect". The NDEA Institutes were basically college programs; they barely touched the schools. In their own way they were examples of the one-shot inservice programs so totally in disfavor today.

(2) The California English Teacher Specialist Program. The English Teacher Specialist Program was designed to resolve the problems of the earlier NDEA Institutes. The expertise of teachers trained in the program was tapped, and there was the possibility of follow-up

with a cadre of 200 trained teachers available to be used as consultants by schools and districts throughout California. But the program lacked focus. Like the earlier NDEA Institutes, the ETS Program tried to improve English teaching in all of its dimensions simultaneously--reading, literature, language, composition, media, oral communication, etc. There was no concentration upon any specific problem. However, an even greater problem arose from the very size of California. The state was simply too large; there were too many school districts and far too many school teachers to be served by a statewide corps of consultants. The program had no geographic focus other than the whole state. It lacked that regional focus that would have made it possible to saturate an area and touch all of the teachers, and thereby all of the students, within that area.

C. The Bay Area/California/National Writing Project: Characteristics of a Model:

(1.) Direct Involvement of Classroom Teachers

(a) Teachers as Project Staff Members: Teachers not only help plan the Writing Projects but serve as co-directors of established projects. At Berkeley, for example, three classroom teachers, released by their districts, are serving full-time as project administrators and co-directors.

(b) Teachers as Instructors of Campus Programs: The teachers invited to participate in the campus Summer Institutes become, collectively, the major instructional staff. The teachers give presentations and demonstrate particular approaches to writing, teaching each other what they know about the teaching of writing and preparing themselves as Teacher/Consultants for the workshops they will later conduct in the schools. In the Writing Projects, the teachers are involved as teachers and not just as students.

(c) Teachers as Teachers of Teachers: The teachers trained in the Summer Institutes conduct workshops in school districts in the

surrounding area served by the project,usually in a format that included ten or more 3-hour sessions scheduled throughout the school year. Writing Project Inservice Programs, then, are taught by practicing teachers, teachers who have found ways to solve real composition problems in classes similar to those taught by the teachers attending the workshops. More and more, these year-long inservice programs tend to be continued by the districts into a second and third year. As a result, Writing Project inservice programs are beginning to touch those teachers in the schools who have never been touched before, those teachers who have never before attended conferences or participated in workshops.
(d)Teacher Authority: The Writing Projects provide the authority necessary for classroom teachers to be recognized as legitimate consultants and qualified teachers of other teachers. Teachers invited to the University of California--Berkeley Project are invited as Fellows of the University, in letters signed by the provosts. At the conclusion of the Summer Institute the teachers who have participated become staff members of the University of California--Berkeley/Bay Area Writing Project as Teacher/Consultants.

(2) The Writing Teacher Writes:

The teachers involved in all Writing Project programs, those on the campuses and those in the schools, write a great deal themselves. They write position papers in which they define their personal perspectives on the teaching of composition, they write as part of the presentations by fellow teachers,and they write assignments typically asked of students. As a result, Writing Project Teachers are experiencing directly what it is they have been asking of their students and are re-discovering the process of writing by writing themselves. The results are frequently transforming, even for the most experienced teacher. Attitudes and perspectives change as teachers discover for themselves the difficulties their students face in a variety of common assignments.

(3) Kindergarten-Grade 13 Cross Grade Level Programs

The K-13 mix of teachers is an essential characteristic of the Writing Projects. By design, the teachers trained come from all levels of instruction. By deliberately mixing teachers from the elementary grades together with secondary and college teachers, we give all teachers a perspective on writing that they have never had before. (Teachers at all levels are generally ill-informed as to what does go on--what can go on--at classroom levels other than their own.) We also recognize the necessity of a sound program in writing at the elementary level, and, most importantly, we create a situation that generates new insights about such matters as sequence of instruction, curriculum design, and teaching strategies. Writing Project teachers come to realize that, in the teaching of composition, there are sequences, approaches, and specific techniques that are possible at all levels, that the writing process is the same in the upper grades as it is in college and at every stage in between.

(4) Writing Across the Curriculum

Increasingly, Writing Project programs, campus and school based, are serving teachers in disciplines other than English. Summer Institutes frequently include teachers of mathematics, science, and social sciences; in fact, inservice programs to foster writing across the curriculum are on the increase in the schools. Writing is a way of learning, and with this focus teachers in disciplines other thanEnglish become increasingly aware of writing as a means of helping students better learn the content of their own particular fields. The idea that understanding is increased through the very act of writing is a notion that can apply to all subject fields. Involving teachers from fields other than English in a writing workshop constitutes the first step toward developing a schoolwide writing policy which looks at the relationship between writing and learning throughout the curriculum.

(5) Regional Programs

(a) In the San Francisco Bay Area alone there are 176 independent school districts. To guarantee impact and sustained service--in programs that potentially could touch every local school district, teacher, and student--the Bay Area Writing Project was designed to concentrate its efforts within the nine counties of the greater Bay Area.

(b) Every site within the National Writing Project, although supported and assisted by the Bay Area Writing Project, is an autonomous, regional project serving the schools within a specific geographic area, e.g., The Prairie Writing Project serving Northern Minnesota and Northern North Dakota, the Missouri Writers' Workshop serving districts in Central Missouri, the Puget Sound Writing Project serving the greater Seattle area, etc.

(c) The regional projects within the National Writing Project Network enjoy extended resources not available to programs limited to single LEA's, e.g., the teaching talent that can be drawn from all school districts in the project area, the facilities and staff of the sponsoring university, the combined resources of several district and county offices.

(6) Cooperative Funding

The National Writing Project demonstrates the integration of funding from different sources; each site within the network is supported by multiple funding sources:

(a) The inservice programs at all NWP sites are cooperatively funded by the universities and the schools. At Berkeley, in a funding formula that is typical, the university supports all campus programs and the school districts support all school programs.

(b) The Bay Area Writing Project supports new Writing Project sites with Gifts & Matching funds provided by The National Endowment for the Humanities: $15,000 from BAWP/NEH matched by an equal amount(or

more) raised locally. This funding formula not only doubles the amount of money available through the Endowment but forces new sites to build a firm base of local support with matching funds from: (1) local family foundations (Kerr Foundation support for the Oklahoma Writing Project, Winthrop Rockefeller Foundation support for the Mid-South Writing Project in Arkansas); (2) regional and county educational agencies (The Texas Hill County Writing Project, The Northern California Writing Project); (3) private citizens (The Greater New Orleans Writing Project); and (4) private enterprise (The Nebraska Writing Project).

(c) Because the Bay Area Writing was named "exemplary" by California Title IV-C, school districts working in cooperation with the various California Writing Projects can apply for Adoption Grants to support their local Writing Project.

(d) The Virginia Writing Project, after initial support from BAWP/NEH, received a Title IV-C Development Grant to establish a statewide network of Writing Projects, involving six Virginia universities and their surrounding school districts.

(e) In California, the State Department of Education supports bi-annual meetings for Directors and key teachers from all California Writing Project sites. In addition, the Department sponsors an annual, coordinating conference on staff development, which brings together representatives from all statewide staff development programs, e.g., California Writing Project, Teacher Centers, Teacher Corps, etc.

(7) Intersegmental Support

All of the sites in the National Writing Project were designed as cooperative university/school efforts to improve writing ability. That cooperation was highly visible, with representatives from different segments of the educational community actively involved not only in planning programs but in carrying them out. Because of this collaboration the National Writing Project has been able to attract and maintain an unusually high degree of intersegmental

support. This support includes administrators and faculty from all segments of higher education; public and private school teachers and administrators; directors of state and national professional organizations; superintendents and staff members of county, regional, and state departments of education; private citizens and program officers of private and federal foundations; state legislators; and professional evaluators.

D. Summary: In the three years since 1976, the Bay Area/California/National Writing Project has probably become the major staff development program in the country, featured frequently in the nation's press and on network television. It has, as Paul Diederich (Senior Consultant for the Educational Testing Service) said of it, received that greatest of all evaluations--common acceptance in the market place. Diederich, invited by Michael Scriven, Director of the Carnegie Evaluation unit, to examine the Bay Area Writing Project, wrote in his evaluation:

> Now let me take a broader view of this whole problem of evaluating what BAWP has accomplished so far and is likely to accomplish in the near future. First, I believe you have something red-hot going for you. I could not estimate how many meetings, workshops, and cooperative projects of English teachers I have participated in over the past 40 years, but I know that the usual attitude is one of polite skepticism interspersed with strong opposition. I seldom get the feeling that these teachers are going to do anything about the ideas expressed in these meeting. But here in the Bay Area you have a large group of intelligent and well-informed teachers whose attitudes toward BAWP methods of training and rejuvenating teachers are wildly enthusiastic. They not only are applying the ideas they have picked up in their own teaching but are also eager to spread the word with apostolic zeal. Even those who fear that the enthusiasm generated by this movement will not show up in the short papers written by students all hope that its beneficial effects will be proven by other means in the short run, and by improvement in writing in the long run.

(BAWP) has stirred up English teachers to an extent that I have seldom if ever seen. I was closely involved in the work of some of the research and development centers established by Project English, but none of them started what one would call a "movement" I now believe that the Bay Area Writing Project really has started a movement that is sweeping the country.

Although it may be hard to work out in practice, the basic idea (of BAWP) is so simple and practical that one feels instinctively that it ought to work. It is very difficult to make anything more than superficial changes in teacher training programs, and if something like thirty states are already adopting this program in one form or another, you can be pretty sure that a lot of critical, well-informed trainers of English teachers see value in it, regardless of differences in short test essays written by experimental and control classes. Thus it is well on its way toward passing the 'test of the market,' and we have only to wait a few years to find out whether it is a passing fad or a basic idea that will leave a mark on the training of English teachers long after the initial excitement has subsided. With all my bias in favor of hard data, I am already pretty sure that this is one of those ideas that will last--like Langdell's invention of the case method of teaching law about 1870.

E. Implementing Title II-Basic Skills Improvement: questions, suggestions.

(1) If the University of California, as the lead agency for the National Writing Project, proposed to submit an application to support a national network of 100 Writing Projects at $50,000 per site, $2,500,000 from Title II funds and $2,500,000 in required matching funds, could the University submit such a proposal? The initial draft regulations list institutions of higher education as eligible applicants; however, Sec. 202(a) of the bill lists only State and local educational agencies. Is some clarification needed here? Can the definition of LEA be redefined to include institutions of higher education?

(2) Funding formulas that require applicants to demonstrate cost-sharing, multiple sources of support, or secured matching funds have several advantages over outright grant programs:

(a) the actual dollar amount to support the program is sizably increased;

(b) programs that can demonstrate an existing base of support through several funding sources have a far greater chance of lasting beyond the lifetime of the grant.

The Sub-committee's Basic Skills Fact Sheet states that "the new program is envisioned as a lever for coordinating basic skills efforts by sponsoring the development of state plans and the creation of exemplary local programs that can demonstrate the integration of funding from different sources." Will the final Guidelines be this specific in their requirements for funding? I notice no language quite this specific in the current draft regulations; I suggest that it be added. I recognize that there are many districts today that are financially strapped, and requiring cost-sharing would be requiring the impossible. Nevertheless, districts and schools can demonstrate commitment in various ways. Programs can be supported with in-kind services or with re-allocation of existing funds.

(3) Stressed throughout the bill is a particular sequence of activities designed to improve basic skills instruction: an initial diagnostic needs assessment, followed by the establishment of goals and objectives, and finally the development of a comprehensive program. Farther down what seems to be a priority listing are demonstration and training activities. I quarrel with this hierarchy for a variety of reasons, even though I suspect experienced program directors can find ways to make it work. All could so easily go awry. It was only a few years ago that teachers were spending inordinate amounts of time writing behavioral objectives, e.g., "67% of the students will be able to read The Scarlet Letter with 82% accuracy." Needs assessments, particularly when administrators, teachers, students, aids, and parents are all involved, can take a year or more. Comprehensive plans could all too easily result in tomes resembling those fat, curriculum guides districts were writing in the late 50's and early 60's. Once written, they were usually shelved or filed away in desk drawers, particularly by the majority of the teachers who were not involved in the writing.

I classify all of the above activities as mere preparation for the main act, teaching teachers better ways to teach the basic skills.

When the Bay Area Writing Project plans a school district inservice program, meetings are held with district administrators and teachers. Usually in a single meeting the district staff can tell us what their needs are: "Most of our teachers admit to not knowing how to teach writing," "We need to know about ways of teaching the slower kids how to write, " "The essays we get are terrible; they're pretentious, dull, wooden, pompous. How do you teach the essay?" In no time at all the needs, the objectives, and the goals of the district are clearly stated;and, within a month, a district-wide inservice program has started. showing the district teachers various approaches to the teaching of writing. We urgethat the final Guidelines be sensitive to past realities and stress that

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the purpose of Title II is to improve student basic skill performance and not to prepare time-consuming and elaborate programs to set about doing so.

(4) Throughout the bill (Sec. 208 (1) & (4); Sec. 222 (2D); Part C: Sec. 231 and Sec. 232), reading and mathematics programs receive special emphasis and support. Is there any particulare reason why programs to improve writing have not been equally emphasized?

(5) Although individual schools need the support that Title II now offers them--70% of state program funds must go directly to LEA's--there are historical grant application problems at the school level that need to be recognized and resolved. Classroom teachers, overworked as they are with five classes, homework to be corrected, and necessary preparation time, find it difficult to put in the hours it takes to write a proposal. As a result, the task--and it frequently thought of as a task--is given over to some administrative aide in the central office who is unaware of the classroom problems. Administrators then complain that it is costing them $2,000 in staff time to write a proposal that will only generate $10,000. Also, there never seems to be enough lead time. Teachers are informed that the school can get some money, but the proposal must be written by next Thursday at the latest. As a result, state agencies not infrequently find themselves with excess funds, and calls go out to districts to "Get something in to us quickly."

One solution that I would recommend--that obviously comes from my six years' experience with the Bay Area Writing Project--is to extend the definition of LEA to include regional programs. A regional project, as I have mentioned before, has resources beyond those of any single school or district. And regional programs can serve individual school districts. The Bay Area Writing Project is currently running between 30 and 40 district programs annually, serving in excess of 800 teachers a year in its campus and school

programs. We have helped districts apply for Title IV-C funds available to them as adoption grants on the BAWP model. We wrote a model Title IV-C adoption grant application; we made this model application available to districts; we counseled teachers on the writing of proposals; and we generated proposal applications that would never otherwise have been written.

THE NATIONAL WRITING PROJECT, 1976-1979

Northwest

1. The Writing Project of Anchorage (Anchorage Public Schools in cooperation with the University of Alaska)	Nicky Mc Curry, Director Anchorage School District 4600 DeBarr Road Anchorage, Alaska 99504
2. The University of Oregon/Oregon Writing Project (The University of Oregon, Eugene)	Nathaniel Teich, Director Department of English University of Oregon Eugene, Oregon 97403
3. The Oregon Writing Project (The Oregon Title IV-C Project)	Pat Stone, Director Central Point School District 6 451 N. Second Street Central Point, Oregon 97502
4. Puget Sound Writing Program (University of Washington-Seattle)	Anne Gere, Director English Dept. Room 30 University of Washington Seattle, Washington 98195

West

5. The Colorado Writing Project (University of Colorado, Boulder)	Miles Olson, Director School of Education University of Colorado Boulder, Colorado 80309
6. The University of Montana Writing Project (The University of Montana, Missoula)	Richard R. Adler, Director Department of English University of Montana Missoula, Montana 59812
7. The Utah Writing Project (Utah State University, Logan)	William Strong, Director College of Education Utah State University Logan, Utah 84321

Midwest

8. Missouri Writers' Workshop (The University of Missouri, Columbia)	Ben Nelms, Director Department of English 231 Arts & Science University of Missouri-Columbia Columbia, Missouri 65201

Midwest (cont.)

9.	St. Louis Area Writing Project (Missouri Title IV-C)	Max Wolfrum, Director School District of Webster Groves 16 Selma Avenue Webster Groves, Missouri 63119
10.	Nebraska Writing Project (The University of Nebraska and the Nebraska State Department of Education)	Leslie Whipp, Director 114 Andrews Hall University of Nebraska-Lincoln Lincoln, Nebraska 68588
11.	Nebraska Writing Project: Chadron (*) State (Chadron State College, Chadron, Nebraska)	Robert Doxtater, Dorset Graves Co-Directors Division of Language and Literature Chadron State College Chadron, Nebraska 69337
12.	Nebraska Writing Project (*) (University of Nebraska-Omaha)	Philip Smith, Director Dept. of English University of Nebraska Omaha, Nebraska 68132
13.	The Prairie Writing Project (Tri-College University: Moorhead College, Concordia College, and North Dakota State)	Keith A. Tandy, Director English Department Moorhead State College Moorhead, Minnesota 56560
14.	Upper Peninsula Writing Project (Northern Michigan University, Marquette)	John Kuhn, Director Mark Smith, Co-Director Department of English Northern Michigan University Marquette, Michigan 49855
15.	Chicago Area Writing Project (National College of Education, Evanston)	Betty J. Wagner, Director National College of Education Evanston, Illinois 60201
16.	Twin Cities Area Writing Project (Associated Colleges of the Twin Cities)	Sister Ann Redmond, Director Associated Colleges of the Twin Cities 214 Aquinas Hall 2115 Summit Avenue St. Paul, Minnesota 55105
17.	Northern Plains Writing Project (Northern Plains Consortium, Minot State College, Minot)	Harold Nelson, Director English Department Minot State College Minot, North Dadota 58701

Midwest (cont.)

18. The Great River Writing Project (*) (Winona State University, Winona)	Lois Bueler, Director English Department Winona State University Winona, Minnesota
19. Wisconsin Writing Project (University of Wisconsin-Madison)	John Kean, Director School of Education University of Wisconsin Madison, Wisconsin 53706

Southwest

20. Greater Phoenix Area Writing Project (Arizona State University, Tempe)	Robert S. Shafer, Director William T. Ojala, Co-Director Department of English Arizona State University Tempe, Arizona 85281
21. Oklahoma Writing Project (University of Oklahoma, Norman)	Frances Dunham, Director College of Education 820 Van Vleet Oval University of Oklahoma Norman, Oklahoma 73019
22. Southern Arizona Writing Project (*) (University of Arizona, Tucson)	James Rankin, Director John Hollowell, Co-Director College of Education University of Arizona Tucson, Arizona 85721
23. Kansas Writing Project (Wichita State University, Wichita)	Rushworth M. Kidder, Director Department of English Wichita State University Wichita, Kansas 67208
24. New Mexico Writing Project (New Mexico State, Las Cruces) (funded directly by NEH)	Bill Bridges, Rick VanDeWeghe Co-Directors Department of English New Mexico State, Box 3-E Las Cruces, New Mexico 88003

South

25. The Mid-South Writing Project (Arkansas State University)	George S. Peek, Director Division of English, P.O. Drawer Q Arkansas State University State University, Arkansas 72467

South (cont.)

26. University of New Orleans/Greater New Orleans Writing Project (The University of New Orleans, New Orleans)	Elizabeth Penfield, Director Department of English University of New Orleans Lakefront New Orleans, Louisiana 70122
27. Texas Hill Country Writing Project (The University of Texas, Austin)	Geneva H. Pilgrim, Walter Lamberg Co-Directors Department of Curriculum and Instruction Education Building 406 University of Texas Austin, Texas 78712
28. Greater Memphis Writing Project (Memphis State University, Memphis)	H. Ramsey Fowler, Director Department of English Memphis State University Memphis, Tennessee 38152
29. Mississippi Writing Project (*) (University of Mississippi, University)	Maxine E. Blackburn, Director School of Education University of Mississippi University, Mississippi 38677
30. The Northeast Texas Writing Project (East Texas State University, Commerce)	Glenn W. Irvin, Director Department of Literature and Languages East Texas State University Commerce, Texas 75428
31. East Texas Writing Project (*) (East Texas University, Texarkana)	Charles Mazer, Director English Department East Texas University Texarkana, Texas
32. West Virginia Writing Project (West Virginia College of Graduate Studies, Institute)	Frances Simone, Director Hill Hall, Room 226 West Virginia College of Graduate Studies Institute, West Virginia 27511

Southeast

33. Wofford Writing Project (Wofford College, Spartanburg)	L. Harris Chewning, Director Wofford College Spartanburg, South Carolina 29301
34. Northern Virginia Writing Project (George Mason University, Fairfax)	Donald R. Gallehr, Director Department of English George Mason University 4400 University Drive Fairfax, Virginia 22030

Southeast (cont.)

35. Central Virginia Writing Project (**) (University of Virginia, Charlottesville)	Joseph Strezpek, Director Education Department University of Virginia Charlottesville, Virginia 22903
36. Southwest Virginia Writing Project (**) (Virginia Polytechnical Institute and State University, Blacksburg)	Patricia Kelly, Director Department of Education 304 Gym Street Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
37. Capitol Virginia Writing Project (**) (Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond)	William Griffin, Director Department of English Virginia Commonwealth University Richmond, Virginia 23803
38. South-Side Virginia Writing Project (**) (Virginia State College, Petersburg)	Doug Decker, Director B.S. Dobney Virginia State College Box 70 Petersburg, Virginia 23803
39. Tidewater Virginia Writing Project (**) (College of William & Mary, Williamsburg)	Mark G. Gilesian, Director School of Education College of William and Mary Williamsburg, Virginia 23185
40. Duke Writing Institute (Duke University, Durham) (Supported by the Sachem Fund)	Michael Michlin, Director Department of Education 08C West Duke Building Duke University Durham, North Carolina 27706
41. The Tampa Bay Area Writing Project (University of South Florida, Tampa)	William West, Director College of Education University of South Florida Tampa, Florida 33620
42. Southeast Center for the Teaching of Writing (Georgia State University)	R. Allan Spanjer, Director College of Education Georgia State University 33 Gilmer Street, S.E. Atlanta, Georgia 30303
43. The University of North Carolina at Charlotte Writing Project (University of North Carolina, Charlotte)	Samuel D. Watson, Jr. Director Leon Gatlin, Co-Director 213 Garinger UNC at Charlotte Charlotte, North Carolina 28223
44. Georgia Mountains Writing Project (North Georgia College, Dahlonega)	Mary Ruth Miller, Director English Department North Georgia College Dahlonega, Georgia 30533

(**) Virginia Title IV-C

East

45. Rutgers/Central New Jersey Writing Project (Rutgers University, New Brunswick)	Janet Emig, Director Joyce Carroll, Co-Director Graduate School of Education Rutgers University Seminary Place New Brunswick, New Jersey 08901
46. New York/Bay Area Writing Project (Board of Cooperative Educational Services/Pace College, Yorktown Heights)	William Grogan, Director Board of Cooperative Educational Services Putnam/Northern Westchester Education Center Yorktown Heights, New York 10598
47. Capital District Writing Project (State University of New York, Albany)	Eugene Garber, Director Department of English SUNY - Albany Albany, New York 12222
48. Western New York/Bay Area Writing Project (State University of New York, Buffalo)	Bruce Miller, Director State University of New York 553 Baldy Hall Buffalo, New York 14260
49. Bay Area Writing Project in New York City (CUNY - Herbert Lehman College	Richard Sterling, Sondra Perl, and John Brereton, Directors The Writing Development Project Herbert H. Lehman College City College of New York Bronx, New York 10468
50. Dowling College Long Island Writing Project (Dowling College, New York)	Miriam R. Baker, Director Jerome Traiger, Co-Director Department of English Dowling College Oakdale, Long Island, New York 11769

Northeast

51. Boston Writing Project (University of Massachusetts, Boston)	Joseph Check, Dorothy Berman Co-Directors Institute for Learning and Teaching University of Massachusetts Harbor Campus Dorchester, Massachusetts 02125
52. The Exeter Writing Project (Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter)	John B. Heath, Director Department of English Phillips Exeter Academy Exeter, New Hampshire 03833

(*) Funding process for new sites not yet completed.

THE CALIFORNIA WRITING PROJECT

1. Area III Writing Project/
University of California--Davis
Kent Gill, Director
Holmes High School
1220 Drexel
Davis, California

Ronald Santora, Co-Director
Area III Writing Project
California State University
English Department
6000 J Street
Sacramento, California 95819

2. Northern California Writing Project
Louise Jensen, Director
Department of English
California State University
Chico, California 95926

3. Inland Area Writing Project
Larry Kramer, Director
Department of English
California State University
5500 State College Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dan Donlan, Co-Director
University of California,
Riverside
School of Education
Riverside, California 92521

4. South Basin Writing Project
California State University
1000 East Victoria Street
Dominguez Hills, California 90747

Alice Brekke, Director for 1979
California State University,
Long Beach
1250 Bellflower Blvd.
Long Beach, California 90840

5. San Diego Area Writing Project
Mary Barr, Anne Von Der Mehden,
Co-Directors
San Diego City Schools
4100 Normal, Annex 4, First Floor
San Diego, California 92103

6. Sonoma State College/North Bay
Writing Center
Eugene Soules, Director
California State College
1801 East Cotati Avenue
Rohnert Park, California 94928

Merilou Clapper, Co-Director
Casa Grande High School
333 Casa Grande Road
Petaluma, California 94952

7. Central California Writing Project
Donald L. Rothman, Director
Oakes College
University of California
Santa Cruz, California 95064

George Ingram, Co-Director
University of California Extension
Santa Cruz, California 95064

8. UCLA/California Writing Project
Everett Jones, Director
Department of English
University of California
Los Angeles, California 90024

Richard Dodge, Co-Director
English Department
Santa Monica College
1900 Pico Boulevard
Santa Monica, California 90405

9. Redwood Writing Project
Thomas E. Gage, Director
Humboldt State University
School of Creative Arts & Humanities
Arcata, California 95521

10. San Joaquin Valley Writing Project
James Frey, Director
Department of English
California State University
Fresno, California 93740

M. Ray McKnight, Co-Director
Department of English
California State University
Fresno, California 93740

11. South Bay Area Writing Project
Iris Tiedt, Director
1654 Fair Orchard
San Jose, California 95125

12. California Writing Project/U.C. Irvine (**)
Carol Booth Olson, Co-Director
University Extension, 148 Administration Bldg.
University of California
Irvine, California 92717

13. Central Coast Writing Project
Robert McDonnell, Director
English Department
California Polytechnic State
San Luis Obispo, California 93407

Doreen Smith, Project Coordinator
of School District Involvement
Office of San Luis Obispo County
Superintendent of Schools
2156 Sierra Way
San Luis Obispo, California 93401

14. Richard Lid, Helen Lodge, Co-Directors
(Affiliated with BAWP) (**)
Department of English
California State University
18111 Nordhoff
Northridge, California 91330

15. Bay Area Writing Project
James R. Gray, Director
School of Education
5635 Tolman Hall
University of California
Berkeley, California 94720

Miles Myers, Administrative Director
School of Education
University of California
Berkeley, California 94720

(**) California Title IV-C

EDITORIAL

The Writing Projects: Toward a New Professionalism

As I prepare the copy for this issue of *English Education*, the newspapers, wire services and broadcast media are all listing the ten top stories of 1978. Camp David? Inflation? Jonestown? Red China? Mid-term elections? Everyone from cub reporter to seasoned columnist plays the game. Perhaps because of this, and perhaps because this is the next to last issue of *English Education* under my editorship (the last one in May will be addressed not to English educators as usual, but to their most visible clients, beginning English teachers), I have been tempted to make a similar list: *What developments have had the most impact on teacher education in English in the six years that I have edited this journal?*

Heading the list, I fear, would be two rather dismal ones: first, the Back-to-the-Basics movement with its emphasis on almost infinite varieties of competency testing and, second, the restricted job market for English teachers and the corresponding decline in enrollment in English Education courses. Next, and less threatening, would be the increased emphasis on field-based teacher education with the resulting influence of practicing teachers on teacher education programs. Further down the list are developments of narrower but encouraging significance: the triumph of children's and adolescent literature in preservice education programs, the increased emphasis on the teaching of reading across the curriculum in secondary schools, the chain of research on sentence-combining (one of the few times in our profession that one fairly well-defined area of research has been followed through by so many researchers in so many contexts), and the healthy, if inconclusive, debate over "students' right to their own language." Professional journals have been replete with articles on the rise and fall of high school elective programs in English, on the need for incorporating literature of ethnic minorities and literature by and about women in the curricula,

and on the implications of career education for the teacher of English. What will be the final outcome of each of these controversies is still uncertain.

Gene. however, it has been a "down" period for our profession. Nothing generated the excitement and optimism of the sixties, the era of Project English, the NDEA institutes, the Dartmouth Seminar, CEE itself. The new NCTE guidelines on teacher education and certification, although admirable as a position paper, attracted neither the professional attention nor the widespread response on the part of certifying agencies that the old English Teacher Preparation Study of the sixties did.

One development that *is* generating that kind of excitement,—one that may have a steadier and longer lasting influence on teacher education in English—is the Bay Area Writing Project and the network of similar projects that are springing up around the country. Sometimes funded adequately though not lavishly by the National Endowment for the Humanities, more often funded by other local, state and occasionally national sources, these projects seem to have the kind of grass roots appeal, both to the profession and to the public, that the more affluent programs of the early sixties and the more dramatic movements of the late sixties/early seventies lacked. The projects are important not just for the influence they may have on the teaching of writing but also as models of teacher education, especially inservice education, all-important as it is in our currently stable profession. They may represent a new professionalism in English—a professionalism that transcends what practicing teachers perceive as the narrow academicism of college English departments and the intellectually suspect pragmatism of colleges of education.

Like the widely praised NDEA institutes of the sixties, the Bay Area Writing Projects bring a group of teachers together for intensive study and interaction, usually on a university campus for a four or five week period during the summer. Unlike the NDEA institutes, however, which affected only isolated classrooms and seem to have had little lasting impact on English teaching in general, these projects attempt to draw teachers in clusters from schools within the same area so that, upon their return to the classroom, the teachers can reinforce each other in their newly acquired skills and attitudes. For teachers of writing in public schools, where institutional requirements and conditions often militate against excellence in the teaching of writing, this camaraderie is important.

Rather than making a global attack on the entire discipline of English, as the NDEA institutes tended to do, the projects

concentrate on one problem—a problem which has been identified by the public, or at least by the press, and by educational leaders at all levels as crucial. (This crisis atmosphere, whether it has been justified or not, has proven important in the securing of funds and broad-based support.) Teachers from all levels—elementary, secondary, and college—are recruited in the projects, thus breaking down artificial barriers to communication.

Perhaps most important, teachers in the projects are viewed as professionals, with their own areas of expertise, their own successful classroom experiences to report and their own contribution to make to the improvement of their fellows, *not* as minimally competent graduate students, expected to go through their paces for their professors in a crash course in a new curriculum. Institute activities balance demonstrations of teaching methods and curriculum, usually presented by the participants for their peers, with intensive practice in and small group discussion of the kinds of assignments they give their students, on the assumption that writing teachers should themselves be confident writers and critics. The institute directors have two roles: (1) to provide an environment rich with new ideas, new teaching materials and the findings of recent research and (2) to orchestrate the presentations, providing continuity and supplementing with their own expertise or with outside consultants in areas in which participants' experiences are limited.

Teachers involved in the projects during the summer months continue in a follow-up program during the ensuing year so that the summer institute is not one isolated peak experience. They understand from the beginning that they are to become teacher/consultants in the program, attempting to reach other teachers, sharing their skill and enthusiasm. The intent is to create a "ripple" effect, influencing many teachers not directly involved in the project itself. Teachers themselves become the most effective teacher educators. This shared responsibility for improved teaching may be the theme of a new and exciting professionalism in English Education.

University of California--Berkeley
Bay Area/National Writing Project
James Gray, Director

HISTORY AND GROWTH OF THE BAY AREA-CALIFORNIA-NATIONAL WRITING PROJECTS

1971-1973: Planning meetings on the University of California--Berkeley campus. Key public school teachers, professors, and curriculum leaders in the Bay Area discuss their common need for reforms in writing instruction.

1973-1974: The University of California--Berkeley/Bay Area Writing Project is funded by the College of Letters and Science with an initial budget of $13,000. BAWP receives a five-year commitment from the University; future funding subject to the success of the first year's program. Twenty-five teachers, grades 7 throught 13, attend the first Invitational Summer Institute. Initial grant proposal for outside support rejected.

1974-1975: Fifty Bay Area school administrators attend planning meeting to discuss BAWP's role in district staff development programs. First invitations from districts for year-long BAWP inservice workshops; eight such programs planned during this first year. BAWP teacher/consultants conduct inservice programs in their own districts. BAWP co-sponsors Conference on the Teaching of Composition with the Central California Council of Teachers of English. Directors of BAWP released from other duties during the course of the year, initially for 30% time, full-time by the Spring Quarter. Second Invitational Summer Program conducted with additional funding from the College of Letters and Science.

1975-1976: Twenty invitations received from Bay Area school districts for full-year BAWP inservice programs; cost to each district during this period is $1,000 to $1,200. UC Berkeley commits funding for BAWP through 1977-78, totaling $267,000 for the full five years. BAWP plans new programs on the UC campus: the BAWP Subject A Training Program for high school advanced composition teachers; the Target Area programs for intensive work in specific school districts; and the BAWP Open Program, a summer program open to all teachers nationwide, K-13, modeled upon the Invitational Summer Institute. The BAWP Co-Director representing the public schools is brought onto campus full-time, supported by University funds. BAWP helps plan the Duke University Writing Project with support from the Sachem Fund. BAWP staff invited to the University of Oregon to help plan the Oregon Writing Project. BAWP invited to participate in the Sloan Foundation two-week workshop on academic preparation of minority students for careers in engineering. The Carnegie Corporation of New York funds a long-term outside evaluation of BAWP to be conducted by Professor Michael Scriven. The National Endowment for the Humanities funds the UC-Berkeley/Bay Area Writing Project and invites BAWP to submit an amendment to support BAWP-modeled Writing Projects at university campuses nationwide.

1977-1978: a) BAWP received forty-one invitations from local school districts for inservice staff development programs, including several repeats. BAWP fee to districts for full-year programs increased to $1,750.

1977-1978: (Cont'd)

b) The National Endowment for the Humanities funds the second National Writing Project site amendment. The number of writing project sites is increased to forty-one. Twenty-four states now included in the program. All 1977 sites self-supporting in 1978. California State Department of Education funds a Conference on Staff Development--featuring the California Writing Project--for 500 California school administrators. BAWP staff members hold planning meetings at all new National Writing Project sites. First meeting of NWP Directors held in New York, during the pre-convention period of the annual convention of The National Council of Teachers of English.

c) BAWP named "Exemplary Program" under federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title IV-C, for second year in a row. Twenty-three California districts receive $10,000 Adoption Grants for BAWP-modeled staff development programs; most district Title IV-C programs tied to California Writing Project sites. Two additional California Writing Project sites planned for summer of 1978, funded through school district Title IV-C grants: UC Irvine and California State University--Northridge. Oregon Title IV-C Development Grant continued for second year. The Oklahoma Writing Project receives Title IV-C support. The Northern Virginia Writing Project writes Title IV-C Development Grant to support five additional projects in Virginia.

d) BAWP conducts seven one-unit/three-day courses in Anchorage for the University of Alaska. BAWP conducts four two-week workshops, two secondary and two elementary, in the Virgin Islands during summer 1978. BAWP conducts a two-week institute in England for English teachers teaching for the United States Department of Defense Dependents' Schools: European Area, summer 1978. BAWP invited to staff the Webster Groves, Missouri Title IV-C program, modeled upon the Bay Area Writing Project Summer Institute.

e) BAWP asked to organize a statewide summer training program for teachers working with University of California (Systemwide) Outreach Programs; $70,000 made available to five California Writing Project sites to train 100 terchers of minority students.

f) The Carnegie Evaluation unit begins systematic study of: (1) BAWP's impact upon teachers, (2) BAWP's impact upon student writing performance, and (3) particular approaches to the teaching of writing identified by the project as "best practices."

g) The Bay Area Writing Project receives the seventh annual Western Electric Fund Appreciation Award "in recognition of outstanding achievement in meeting today's educational needs."

h) The Regents of the University of California receive $140,000 from the California State Legislature in support of the California Writing Project.

1977-1978: (Cont'd)

i) BAWP plans fifth Invitational Summer Institute. (122 elementary through college instructors have now been trained as teacher/consultants of the Bay Area Writing Project.) The University of California--Berkeley English Teacher Training Program becomes a component of the Bay Area Writing Project. The Open Program, Subject A Training Program, and Target Area Programs continue.

j) BAWP begins publication program. Vol. 1 No. 1 of a Curriculum, Evaluation, and Research series published: "The California High School Proficiency Examination: Evaluating the Writing Samples," by Bernstein and Tanner. Twenty additional studies for this series are underway. Teaching Writing, K-8, by Jack Hailey, published in cooperation with the Instructional Laboratories of the UC--Berkeley Department of Education. Contracts received from Oxford University Press and NCTE for two additional texts.

k) The Phi Delta Kappan publishes article on the Bay Area Writing Project in the February 1978 issue.

l) BAWP submits third amendment proposal to the National Endowment for the Humanities to continue growth and development of the National Writing Project.

1978-1979:

a) The National Endowment for the Humanities funds BAWP third amendment proposal to continue development of the National Writing Project. Total NEH support increased to $1,556,000. New amendment will fund fifteen additional Writing Project sites, support previously funded sites, and fund a National Writing Project Network Newsletter. As of April 1979, the number of National Writing Project sites increased to 41; the number of states involved increased to 23.

b) The Bay Area Writing Project receives 30 invitations from Bay Area school districts for year-long inservice programs, including several repeat invitations. The above invitations were received after Proposition 13 severely curtailed school district discretionary funds in California.

c) The Bay Area Writing Project named "exemplary" by California Title IV-C for third year. Funding of Adoption Grant proposals ($10,000 to districts for staff development programs based upon the BAWP model) to be announced in late spring of 1979.

d) The Bay Area Writing Project co-sponsors with RAEBCU (Regional Association of East Bay Colleges and Universities) its first year-long inservice program planned exclusively for college teachers of composition.

e) The Bay Area Writing Project helps 25 local school districts plan and implement methods for evaluating writing proficiency to comply with the provisions of recent California legislation (the "Hart Bill" and Assembly Bill 65). BAWP receives additional positive evaluation data from school districts working with the project on programs for evaluating student writing.

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1978-1979: (Cont'd)

f) The Bay Area Writing Project, for the second year, is invited to conduct a two-week staff development institute for teachers working within the Department of Defense Dependents' Schools: European Area. The institute again to be held at the University of Leicester, England.

g) The Bay Area Writing Project, for the second year, is invited to conduct a series of 15-hour mini-courses for English teachers in Anchorage, Alaska.

h) The Bay Area Writing Project invited to conduct two-week summer institutes for teachers from the American Independent Schools: Asian Area, and from the Department of Defense Dependents' Schools: Pacific Area. These institutes to be held in Tokyo and Singapore, summer 1979.

i) The first summary reports of the three-year outside evaluation of the Bay Area Writing Project by the Carnegie Corporation of New York are made available to the BAWP staff. The completed report planned for final public release in fall 1979.

j) BAWP plans sixth annual Berkeley campus summer programs: 1) Invitational Summer Institute, 2) Open Program, 3) Subject A Training Program, and 4) Partnership Program for public school teachers of minority students.

k) BAWP teacher/consultants increasingly involved with field-based research studies, assisted by UC faculty and graduate students.

l) BAWP publication efforts increased. Twenty manuscripts are completed, and an additional five are under way for publication in the Bay Area Writing Project Curriculum, Evaluation and Research series, 1979-1980.

m) The Bay Area Writing Project issues Guidelines to all California Writing Project sites for mini-grants of up to $15,000 to train "200 additional teachers of minority students" through funding made available by the California Legislature. Twelve California Writing Project sites receive grants for specific Target Area programs.

n) The Legislative Analyst's Office of the California Legislature recommends that the University of California's request for a "$300,000 General Fund augmentation in order to provide UC with a permanent base level of support for the California Writing Project" be funded by the California Legislature.

o) The California Post-Secondary Education Commission prepares Model Legislation in support of the California Writing Project. If supported by the Legislature, the Model Legislation would provide each California Writing Project site with $25,000 in core support over a three-year period and provide funds for evaluation.

1978-1979: (Cont'd)

p) The California Writing Project is increased to fifteen sites, with new Writing Projects at California State Universities at Fresno and San Luis Obispo. In addition, CSU--Bakersfield and UC Santa Barbara are currently planning new sites.

q) Writing in California, a report prepared by the California State Department of Education, is completed and in its final editing stage. Publication date, fall 1979.

r) The Bay Area Writing Project conducts second annual meeting for the Directors of National Writing Project sites in Kansas City, Missouri, November 1978.

s) The Bay Area Writing Project is featured favorably in the three-part CBS Documentary on American Education, August 1978.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Mr. Gray, we appreciate the time and effort, and you have made a very valuable contribution to our hearing. Thank you.

Mr. Terry Herndon, Executive Director of the National Education Association. He will be accompanied by Ms. Kosa and Mr. Anders.

STATEMENTS OF TERRY HERNDON, EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION; MARY KAY KOSA, TEACHER; AND IRA ANDERS, TEACHER

Mr. HERNDON. Mr. Chairman, we thank you for the opportunity to appear here today on behalf of the NEA, the teachers who are the NEA.

We are a group of people who are both personally and professionally committed to the premise that any society, and most particularly a democratic society like ours, stands on the capacity of the people who make up that country and that nation. And, accordingly, it is our belief that the sustenance of a great society is inseparably linked to the quantity and the efficacy of its investment in increasing the capacity of its people.

To be sure, in a real democracy it is demanded that this investment tend to the needs of all of the people. And any who believe that must conclude that basic educational skills achievement ought to be the Government's aim for each of its citizens. And for that reason we at the NEA, and teachers throughout the United States, certainly applaud your personal attention to the problems that exist in the basic skills of the American people today.

This basic commitment of ours makes it possible for us to avoid many of the debates that are swirling about the back to the basics movement, and we decline the temptation to enter the argument as to the relative quality of today's schools as opposed to yesterday's schools, because of the simple fact that too many of our citizens have inadequate skills, too many children and youth have not attained basic educational skills. We find that a very safe allegation, because any number at all would be too large.

So the question is not whether we ought to respond, but how we ought to respond.

Our focus, as we believe you intended, will be on Public Law 95-561. You personally outlined the scope of that law and the purpose of that law in your introductory comment, so we will dispense with

our personal intention to reiterate that, and proceed with an effort to relate this program to the daily reality in American schools and to provide our own assessment of the opportunity for this program to succeed.

And, finally, we offer some additional suggestions for what we believe might be successful addresses to the problem of inadequate basic skills among America's youth.

At the outset, I would like to digress just a moment to look at another effort by the U.S. Government, an effort which we think bears directly on the issue before us as to how the Federal Government can help improve basic education.

Under the sponsorship of the U.S. Office of Education, the Rand Corp. did an extensive and, I would gather, rather expensive multiuse study of federally funded efforts to induce educational change. The ultimate report was long—it comprised eight volumes. We were looking particularly at volume VII, entitled "Factors Affecting Implementation and Continuation," implementation and continuation being an issue addressed in the basic skills amendments of Public Law 95–561.

Among other things, this report indicates that many Federal efforts to induce change in American schools had no effects that lasted beyond the life of the project. Oftentimes these change agent projects were undertaken for what appeared to be a reason of administrative opportunism. In short, the teachers in the schools had not requested the project, oftentimes did not define the problem as the project defined the problem, but the local school officials saw an opportunity to garner some extra short-term resources or capital, so there was a project. Such opportunistic projects were almost always auxiliary to the district's main priorities and they were conducted as such. And, as a result, there was no change and there was no integration.

And so the Rand people observed that top-down simply doesn't work. Rand discovered that top-down projects seldom evidenced more than pro forma user participation, the users being principals and teachers, in the planning process. Consequently, top-down directives, even when issued with the best intentions, generally met with indifference or resistance at the school level and in the classroom. Some projects were ignored or received scant attention from users, particularly if they had objectives that were trivial or peripheral to the classroom concerns of the teachers.

One might review these findings and rush to negative conclusions about the personnel in the schools. However, the Rand study responded to that observation as well, and fairly well destroys the easy prejudice. It also reported that their data indicated that teachers do rise to challenges, that ambitious and demanding innovations seem more likely to elicit the commitment of teachers than routine projects. This is so in part because these projects appeal to the teachers' professionalism, that is, we believe a primary motivation for teachers to undertake the extra work and disruption of attempting change is the belief that they will become better teachers and that their students will benefit.

The theme runs on with the observation that the Rand researchers doubt whether projects aiming at significant change could be effectively implemented across the whole system at once. A wiser

strategy would be to go step by step so that each school or group of schools can pass its particular threshold of change before new changes are attempted.

The tone of these observations and statements permeated the totality of the report. It was clear to the researchers that outside consultants, prepackaged management plans, and predetermined training plans and other devices were usually irrelevant and useless. On the other hand, teacher-specific training, inclassroom assistance, interclassroom visitation, teacher participation in decisions, and the local development of material profoundly increased the probability of effective change.

In sum, they found that school personnel do have the energy and the expertise to constructively change. However, they observed that the school is a social institution and the process of change is of immense significance to the reality of change. Since the essence of schooling pertains to the allocation of and utilization of resources within a school and the nature of the interaction between students and teachers, effective change efforts must focus on the challenges and opportunities that exist in the school.

In our introduction we asserted that quantity and efficacy of investment was our goal. We know that there are quantitative limits—there always have been, there always will be, money is precious. And, therefore, the principal challenge we have is to use the money wisely. And so we pose the question: How does title II compare with what we know about students', teachers', and school needs? And we answer: It does not compare well.

Part A of title II doesn't say much about schools and teachers. It assists Federal, State, and local educational agencies, it encourages States, it provides $20 million to State and local agencies, and it encourages the involvement of the private sector in delivering materials and services. Section 205 implies that the ultimate end of this varied activity is the implantation of a design within a school; however, it surely reads as though the mode is precisely that which we know lacks efficacy.

Senator EAGLETON. In part A of title II, subpar. (6) reads:

> Active involvement of teachers, teachers aides, administrators, and other educational personnel to improve their ability to utilize available resources to carry out the purposes of this part.

So at least insofar as part A is concerned, doesn't it envision that which you desire and that which Mr. Gray testified to as far as writing skills are concerned, namely, the active involvement of teachers?

Mr. HERNDON. Yes, sir. In fact, I think the purpose goes on to declare that as part of the plan there must be some intent to ultimately integrate into the operation of the school.

However, such statutory language conventionally gets implemented at the local level in much the way that Mr. Gray described it, with teachers that lack the time to participate and some small number of individuals chosen by a school administrator to sign off on a project that is ultimately to be submitted.

That kind of language does not assure that the project will emerge from the perceived needs of teachers, problems that teachers have defined, nor that the ultimate dollars will be utilized in a way that the mass numbers of teachers perceive to be constructive.

On first reading, part B seems to have more promise. Section 222, subsection (b), requires that 70 percent of the funds paid to the SEA's be passed on to local authorities, and in subsection (d) the focus is on school-based programs. Subsection (e) establishes parental involvement programs which are also financed from the appropriations of this section.

We might take heart in the realization that as much as half of the part B money is targeted on inschool instructional activity, but this might be an illusion because of the mandate of the law, which includes that all programs (1) assess children, (2) establish schoolwide goals, (3) train personnel, (4) enlist parents, (5) periodically test and publish results, and (6) assess and evaluate preelementary children.

And when one looks at that list and what usually happens with a list like that in the local school administrative structure, we have great fears that we wind up again with what Mr. Gray described as heavy investment in the preliminaries, heavy investment in subsequent assessments, but no real targeting of the massive portion of the dollars on the reality of the work of improving the skills.

And so what appears to be a laudable commitment to more emphasis on instruction in the basic skills is, or at least might be on closer inspection, another support system for local authorities and State authorities, a stimulus for parental participation, support for right to read, and a supplement for the ill advised and we believe counterproductive testing bill, title IX, part B.

At the base of this rather awesome pyramid of Federal, State, and local education agencies are schools which house teachers and students. Each of these teachers has chosen teaching as a vocation. Each has been graduated by a college or university; each has been certified competent and licensed to teach by a State or local education agency; each has been chosen and employed by a local education agency. Most importantly, these teachers collectively render most of their students competent in basic skills and in more sophisticated intellectual and social activity.

Any program that hopes to significantly enhance the effectiveness of schooling must recognize these realities, and we deeply appreciate your introductory remarks that target on the critical reality of teachers' behavior and capability.

And I think that we must recognize that these teachers are the most valuable available resource in solving the problem of inadequate skills, and therefore any basic strategy must be the enhancement and/or supplementation of the program and resources that are present and that work well for most students, so that they work well for even more students.

We find right to read to be such a program. We think title II's efforts to stimulate parental participation and out-of-school support may hold some limited promise. However, the expansion of State education agencies, the imposition of grand schemes on already overburdened but largely successful teachers, and, above all, the induction of more wasteful standardized testing will not improve instruction one whit.

The NEA supports testing when the tests are used to diagnose learning needs, to prescribe instructional activities, or to measure

student progress in the curriculum. Such testing can be pedagogically constructive.

But standardized testing, on the other hand, typically ends with the dissemination of aggregate data. Neither the student, the parent, nor the teacher is given insight into what questions were missed or why they were missed.

Standardized tests require standardized conditions and typically assume standard rates of growth, which is absolutely contrary to all that is known about teaching and learning.

Why must a slowly developing child be forced to fail a test just so the State or local testing program is fulfilled? Why must he or she be branded inferior or otherwise demeaned because of slowness or differentness? Even more, why should the gifted be allowed to gloat in a promising relative score even if performance is actually far short of potential?

Senator EAGLETON. You do say earlier on in that same page, though, that NEA does support testing when the tests are used to diagnose learning needs, et cetera, et cetera. Insofar as reading is concerned, at what grade levels do you think the testing should be done?

Mr. HERNDON. Standardized tests or diagnostic testing?

Senator EAGLETON. Well, we'll first say diagnostic testing.

Mr. HERNDON. I think diagnostic testing should be regular; it probably should be done prior to the entry into kindergarten. It would have to be highly personalized and individualized and be for the purpose of prescribing the sequence of learning for that particular child.

Massive standardized testing where the results are 3 or 4 months down the road, where the teacher and the student are never exposed to the actual reality of the questions that were missed or any further probing as to why they were missed, in my judgment they should not be given at any grade level.

Senator EAGLETON. So there are no circumstances where you would support the entire class in a given school taking the same test at any grade level?

Mr. HERNDON. Yes; I think some teacher-designed tests for a very particular reason. The reality is that instruction often is whole-class instruction.

But it needs to be a test that ultimately is interpreted on an individual basis. One might administer the same test to all the students at one time, but interpret those data individually.

I would see no point ever giving them all the same test that they were never to see again, they were only to get back a number so that they know how the average of this class compares to the average of other classes, or how one student's average compared to another. That is pedagogically of no value whatsoever.

Senator EAGLETON. When you say "teacher-designed test," why would each teacher in each classroom around the country design his or her own test? Aren't there some tests that through research have been shown to be reasonably useful? Why would each teacher be put to the task of designing his or her own test?

Mr. HERNDON. I think that is a very valid point, Senator, and I did not state myself clearly. I would include teacher selected—

teacher selection of commercially available instruments within the pale of what I am talking about.

Senator EAGLETON. Would it be of no use for the parent to know what the student's score was on a given test and where that student stood within his or her peer group within that class?

Mr. HERNDON. In my judgment, the answer to that is no, and I took the same position just 3 weeks ago in dialog with the principal of my daughter's school in regard to the Maryland statewide testing program, because I thought it was totally counterproductive, a waste of instructional time, and of no value to me to know how my daughter stands in regard to a nationwide norm, if I can't look at the test and know what questions were missed, whether the questions were of some importance, whether the questions related to what she had been doing in school or not. And ultimately the perpetrators of the test agreed that I was right, and said that is just one of the failings of our program, and passed on.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, putting aside the comparison as to a national norm, or what have you, but let's say a class of 30, and they all take an accepted basic test that's been used, say, either in that school system or others around the country, would it be of no help to the parent to know that on that test the student will rank in the upper third, the middle quadrant, the lower third, or what have you?

Mr. HERNDON. I don't see how that would be useful to me as a parent.

Senator EAGLETON. And each parent, then, ought to look into the test questions and see which they thought were relevant to their son or daughter?

Mr. HERNDON. No, I don't believe that at all. I think that as a parent the school could convince me that there was a point to a test, that the teacher and the student and the parent could look at and say this is the kind of problem that my daughter has. The score may well be explained by the fact that my daughter has been exposed to some things that others have not. I am fortunate that my children do very well; they have never been adversely affected by these tests. But that is not true for all children.

And I have no desire for my daughters to walk through the school feeling very secure in their high test scores.

Senator EAGLETON. Are you opposed to any tests at any grade level?

Mr. HERNDON. No.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, if tests are given—some students will perhaps get an A, some will get a B, some will get a C, and so one of those students may walk down the hall in a sort of a cocky attitude because he got an A and some other student will go down the hall with a D and be chagrined. But is that somehow avoidable?

Mr. HERNDON. Well, I think the difficulty I have is with your construction of the question, which assumes that the grade that is granted ought to automatically follow from the administration of a single test. I believe the totality of my children's experience in the school, or any child's experience in the school, is relevant. Willard Wertz's panel that evaluated the declining SAT scores found that even though that examination was valid, the teachers' judgments

tended to be more valid in terms of success in college. The teacher does make a subjective judgment. They can consider test scores; they can consider many other things. And the track record suggests they make pretty good judgments, and I believe those grades have some meaning.

I have to tell you, however, that if I built what I perceive to be the ideal school, there would be significant change in the way we award grades as well. I think that likewise is an outrage in many educational institutions.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you care to elaborate on that a little? I know it is in a sense a digression.

Mr. HERNDON. Yes, I think there are many school board policies, for example, that indicate that attendance is to be a factor in grading. A child whose performance might well have warranted an A gets a B because they had two unexcused absences in the course of the year. Children have their grades reduced by individual teachers whom I represent, because they fail to turn in a particular piece of paper or they missed an assignment here or there. Grades are used punitively in many schools. I think that is unfortunate. Many school board policies embrace the idea of utilizing grades punitively.

If grades are to be a measurement of personal achievement in regard to the expected school curriculum and the objectives that had been set for student development, then I think that perhaps they can be useful.

Many report cards come out with two grades on them now, one is totally objective and one is totally subjective. And so a child gets a grade, maybe there is an A that indicates that they are performing above grade level, but they get a C which is a measurement of their effort.

I believe any grade that is given ought to be fully understood by the student and the parent and the teacher, and everybody should know exactly what it indicates. And rarely is that the case in most of the schools today.

Senator EAGLETON. OK. You were at the bottom of page 7 when I interrupted.

Mr. HERNDON. I merely wanted to reinforce that we believe, both institutionally and I personally, that standardized tests typically are top-down impositions. They are generally perceived by people at the bottom of the pyramid as nuisances with little, if any, pedagogical worth. Teachers and students strategize for coping with them and, as a result, can produce improved scores. Consonant therewith, I have told many of our members across the country that if we wish to increase our security in relationship to the public, we probably should be very enthusiastic about these standardized tests; we ought to encourage everybody to watch them and we ought to go about the job of regearing the schools so that they focus exclusively on improving these scores, because that can be done.

But I think that ought to be seen for what it is—and that is success in coping with tests, not necessarily improving instruction.

We really have difficulty understanding what causes the Congress to believe that more millions of dollars for testing will strengthen instruction in the basic skills. Such a conclusion is

obviously false to those working in the schools, those at the bottom who are coping and looking for help.

Imagine, if you will, the despair of a teacher frustrated by the continuous and simultaneous demand to respond to the social, psychological, intellectual, and, often, physical needs of 30 to 40 children, and anxiety laden by the inadequate progress of many; looking around for meaningful help; and being handed one more standardized test. The best this can do is describe one more time what the teacher already knows to be true, and that is that some of his or her children are not making satisfactory progress.

And so we urge that title II and title IX be rewritten in a manner which diverts the precious dollars that are available for this program from nonproductive activities and redirect the money into more promising strategies.

Many productive possibilities exist. You referenced teacher centers earlier. That is a new phenomenon. There are not enough of them. Mr. Gray indicated he tried to establish one and he was rejected. We believe there ought to be at least one in every congressional district. We think we could fund a modest number in the coming year.

Why not design a program that focuses on teachers and schools and school faculties rather than State education agencies and local education agencies? Design programs that allow individual teachers or groups of teachers at the school level to participate in programs offered by a federally funded teachers center, a particular program designed to promulgate successful strategies for teaching basic skills. Allow those teachers to acquire instructional materials which enhance learning in the basic skills. Allow them to develop or to cause the development of instructional materials that enhance learning in the basic skills. Allow them to develop or cause to be developed criteria referenced diagnostic methodologies. Allow them to select and participate in relevant training opportunities. Provide specialized or individualized instructional services to students who are making unsatisfactory progress in the development of basic skills. Or to experiment with new technologies, materials, and instructional strategies.

Most specifically, I think it's worth evaluating that we consider designing a program which is the basic skills equivalent to the 1958 National Defense Education Act which was a massive effort to upgrade the schools in regard to science, math, and foreign language. I think it might be particularly useful to explore that as a way to cultivate and promulgate the idea that every teacher is a teacher of language skill, writing, and reading, and that they are the process of learning, not necessarily the object of learning, or exclusively the object of learning.

I am certain that if we invest more money in basic research into why people learn and why some don't, with an emphasis on why they learn to read, why they don't, why they learn to write, why they don't, why they can compute or why they can't, that we would find this process to be marvelously complex, but nevertheless predictable, and, because it is predictable, subject to diagnosis and a prescriptive technique.

In sum, we say that if there are millions of dollars to squander on standardized tests—and the Federal budget is a small part of

that; as you indicated, 36 States now are investing heavily—and we could instead invest those dollars in teaching. And the NEA stands ready to energetically assist the committee or you, the Congress, or the totality of the Government, with program designs and operations.

I thank you for allowing us to be present. And, as indicated, we have two real teachers with us today. They come to us from real schools. And I know they are anxious to talk with you as well.

[The prepared statement of Mr. Herndon follows:]

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TERRY HERNDON, Executive Director

STATEMENT OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ON

BASIC EDUCATION SKILLS ACHIEVEMENTS

BEFORE THE

SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND HUMANITIES

OF THE

SENATE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES

PRESENTED BY

TERRY HERNDON

NEA EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR

JUNE 19, 1979

Mr. Chairman:

I am Terry Herndon, the Executive Director of the National Education Association, and I am here to provide testimony in regard to "Basic Educational Skills Achievement." I am proud to respond on behalf of the NEA, an organization that enrolls the overwhelming majority of America's teachers. We are a group of people personally and professionally committed to the premise that a society, and most particularly a democratic society, stands on the capacity of its people. Accordingly, we believe that the sustenance of a great society is inseparably linked to the quantity and the efficacy of its investment in human development of its children.

True democracy demands that this investment tend to the needs of all of the people. Any who believe this must of necessity conclude that "Basic Educational Skills Achievement" must be our government's aim for each citizen. We, the NEA, persistently hope for such a government and we, therefore, applaud your attentiveness to the issue.

Because of our philosophical frame we can comfortably avoid the spurious debates that swirl about the "Back to the Basics" movement, and we can decline the temptation to enter the argument as to the relative quality of today's school and yesterday's school. There are realities: Too many citizens have inadequate skills and, most particularly, too many children and youth have not attained "Basic Educational Skills." This is a safe claim, because any number is too large. The question before us is not "Whether to respond?" but "How to respond?"

As I believe you intended, our focus today is amended P.L. 95-561. The purpose of this law is to improve basic skills achievement among the

nation's children, youth, and adults. The intent of the law is to encourage federal, state, and local educational agencies to work with community organizations and colleges to help improve basic skills. This program expands the Right to Read program and includes mathematics and oral and written communication.

The Basic Skills Improvement program is divided into three major parts. They are:

- Part A, National activities aimed at basic skills improvement at the local level. The first $20 million of the proposed $35 million appropriation must go to this part of the program.

- Part B, State activities designed to provide support of statewide basic skills programs, has a proposed $8.25 million. Each state is guaranteed at least $50,000.

- Part C, Local activities, provides $6 million for the Inexpensive Book Distribution program and $750,000 for the Special Mathematics program.

Part A (National Activities) has six elements: Technical assistance, $2 million; Instruction in basic skills, $7.5 million; Parental involvement in basic skills, $1.5 million; Use of technology in basic skills instruction, $2 million; Involvement of educational agencies and private organizations, $6 million; and Collection and dissemination of information relating to basic skills programs, $1 million.

The State Basic Skills Improvement Program Part B is designed to carry out leadership and training activities statewide and to develop a

statewide plan to improve basic skills. Inservice training is among the activities in this area for which $8.25 million has been requested.

The Special Basic Skills Project Part C has $6 million for one project to motivate children to learn to read and $750,000 for one project to improve mastery of mathematics skills.

We will endeavor to relate this program to our daily reality in the schools and to assess its opportunity for success. Finally, we will offer some additional suggestions for successful assaults on the problem at hand.

At this early point I think it important to digress toward another project of the United States government which bears directly on the issue before us. Under the sponsorship of the U. S. Office of Education, the Rand Corporation conducted an extensive and expensive multi-year study of federally funded efforts to induce educational change. The ultimate report comprised eight volumes. Volume VII is entitled, "Factors Affecting Implementation and Continuation." Among other things, this volume reported that many federal efforts to induce change had no lasting result. Oftentimes change agent projects were undertaken for essentially opportunistic reasons. In short, teachers had not requested a project but local school officials saw an opportunity to garner extra, short-term resources. Such opportunistic projects were auxiliary to the district's main educational priorities and were conducted as such. No change or integration resulted.

Top-down doesn't work. Rand discovered that "[Top-Down projects] seldom evidenced more than pro forma user (teacher and principal) participation in the planning process. Consequently, top-down directives, even when issued with the best intentions, generally met with indifference or resistance at the school level."

"(Some projects) were ignored or received scant attention from users, particularly if they had objectives that were trivial or peripheral to classroom concerns."

One might review these findings and rush to negative conclusions about the personnel at the instructional site. However, the Rand study fairly well destroys such early prejudice, for it also reports ". . . our data indicate that teachers rise to challenges. Ambitious and demanding innovations seem more likely to elicit the commitment of teachers than routine projects. This is so in part because these projects appeal to the teachers' professionalism, that is, we believe a primary motivation for teachers to undertake the extra work and disruption of attempting change is the belief that they will become 'better' teachers and that their students will benefit."

The theme runs on: "We doubt whether projects aiming at significant change could be effectively implemented across the whole system at once. A wiser strategy would be to go step by step, so that each school or group of schools can pass its particular threshold of change before new changes are attempted."

The tone of these statements permeates the totality of the report. It was clear to the researchers that outside consultants, prepackaged management plans, and predetermined training plans were usually irrelevant and useless. On the other hand, teacher specific training, in classroom assistance, inter-classroom visitation, teacher participation in decisions, and the local development of material profoundly increased the probability of effective change.

In sum, school personnel have the energy and the expertise to constructively change. However, the school is a social institution and the process of change is of immense significance to the reality of change. Since the essence of schooling pertains to the allocation of and utilization of resources within a school and the nature of the interaction between students and teachers, effective change efforts must focus on the challenges and opportunities that exist in the school.

In our introduction, I asserted "quantity and efficacy" of investment as our goal. We have quantitative limits and money is precious. We can, however, use the money we have wisely. This necessitates the question, "How does Title II compare with what we know about students', teachers', and schools' needs?" We must answer, "Not very well!"

Part A of Title II doesn't say much about schools or teachers. It assists federal, state, and local educational agencies, it encourages states, it provides $20 million to state and local agencies, and it encourages the involvement of the private sector in delivering materials and services. Section 205 implies that the ultimate end of this varied activity is the implantation of a design within a school; however, it surely reads as though the mode is precisely that which we know lacks efficacy.

On first reading, Part B seems to have more promise; Section 222, subsection "b" requires that 70 percent of the funds paid to SEA's be passed on to LEA's and in subsection "d" the focus is on school based programs. Subsection "e" establishes parental involvement programs which are also financed from the same $14 million.

We might take heart in the realization that as much as half ($4 million)

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of the Part B money is targeted on in-school instructional activity, but even this is an illusion because the law mandates that each program:

(1) assess all children,

(2) establish school-wide goals,

(3) train personnel,

(4) enlist parents,

(5) periodically test achievement and publish results, and

(6) assess and evaluate pre-elementary children.

And so what appeared to be a laudable commitment to more emphasis on instruction in the Basic Skills is, on closer inspection, a support system for LEA's and SEA's, a stimulus for parental participation, support for 'Right to Read,' and a supplement to the ill-advised and counter-productive testing bill, Title IX, Part B.

Mr. Chairman, at the base of the rather awesome pyramid of federal, state, and local education agencies we find the schools which house our teachers and students. Each of these teachers has chosen teaching as a vocation. Each has been graduated by a college or university; each has been certified competent and licensed to teach by a state or local education agency; and each has been chosen and employed by a local education agency. Most importantly, these teachers collectively render most of their students competent in the Basic Skills and in more sophisticated intellectual and social activity.

Any program that hopes to significantly enhance the effectiveness of schooling must recognize these realities and, most specifically, must recognize that these teachers are the most valuable, available resource. The basic strategy of such a program must be the enhancement and/or

supplementation of a program that works well for most so that it works well for even more.

Right to Read is such a program. Title II's efforts to stimulate parental participation and out-of-school support activities may hold some limited promise. However, the expansion of SEA's, the imposition of grand schemes on already overburdened but largely successful teachers, and, above all, the induction of more wasteful standardized testing will not improve instruction one whit. The NEA supports testing when the tests are used to diagnose learning needs, to prescribe instructional activities, or to measure student progress in the curriculum. Such testing is pedagogically constructive.

Standardized testing, on the other hand, typically ends with the dissemination of aggregate data. Neither the student, the parent, nor the teacher is given insight into what questions were missed or why.

Standardized tests require standardized conditions and typically assume standard rates of growth which is absolutely contrary to all that is known about teaching and learning. Why must a slowly developing child be forced to fail a test just so the state or local testing program is fulfilled? Why must he or she be branded inferior or otherwise be demeaned because of "slowness" or differentness? Even more, why should the gifted be allowed to gloat in a promising relative score even if performance is short of potential?

Standardized tests are "top-down" impositions generally perceived from the bottom as nuisances with little, if any, pedagogical worth. Teachers and students strategize for coping with them and, as a result, can produce improved scores. Nevertheless, this ought to be seen for what it is: success in coping with tests, not improved education.

We simply cannot understand what causes the Congress to believe that more millions of dollars for testing will strengthen instruction in the Basic Skills. Such a conclusion is obviously false to one who is at the bottom coping and looking up for help.

Imagine, if you will, the despair of a teacher frustrated by the continuous and simultaneous demand to respond to the social, psychological, intellectual, and, often, physical needs of 30 to 40 children, and anxiety-laden by the inadequate progress of many; looking for meaningful help; and being handed one more standardized test. The best this can do is describe again, what the teacher already knows to be true.

And so, Mr. Chairman, in closing we urge that Title II and Title IX be rewritten in a manner which diverts the precious dollars for this program from these non-productive activities and redirects the money into more promising strategies.

Many productive possibilities exist. Fund 12 more Teacher Centers to insure that there is at least one in every state. Why not design a program which allows an individual teacher or a school faculty

. . . to participate in programs offered by a federally funded Teacher Center which are designed to promulgate successful strategies for teaching basic skills;

. . . to acquire instructional materials which enhance learning in the basic skills;

. . . to develop or to cause the development of instructional material to enhance learning in the basic skills;

. . . to develop or to cause the development of criteria referenced diagnostic methodologies;

. . . to select and participate in relevant training opportunities;

. . . to provide specialized or individualized instructional services to students who are making unsatisfactory progress in the development of basic skills;

. . . to experiment with new technologies, materials, and instructional strategies?

Why not design a program which is the Basic Skills equivalent to the 1958 National Defense Education Act which was a massive effort to upgrade the schools in regard to science, math, and foreign language?

Why not increase our investment in basic research into the phenomena of learning with an emphasis on the basic skills? I am certain that we will find the process to be marvelously complex, but nevertheless predictable, and therefore subject to diagnosis and prescription.

Surely, if we have millions of dollars to squander on testing, we could instead invest them in teaching. The teachers of the NEA stand ready to energetically assist with program designs and operations.

Thank you again for this opportunity.

Senator EAGLETON. I am delighted that Senator Pell, the Chairman of the Education Subcommittee, is with us. Senator, if you have some questions at this time, we will be glad to yield to you.

Senator PELL. I have no questions. I just want to stay a few minutes in order to get the flavor of the hearing and to congratulate Senator Eagleton for the initiative that he has taken in this regard, and out of these hearings perhaps some magic new approach can be derived. We are searching for it, and I think if anybody can arrive there it will be thanks to Senator Eagleton and these hearings.

Thank you for being with us.

Senator EAGLETON. I feel a little short on magic today, but I appreciate your encouragement.

We will now hear from Ms. Kosa and then Mr. Anders.

Ms. KOSA. I am Mary Kay Kosa. I have been a teacher in the public schools in the State of Michigan all of my adult life, almost 30 years. I am not, nor have I ever been, a part of the administration or supervision of any Federal or State compensatory program, and, therefore, am not skilled in understanding the management or operation of those programs. I am, however, skilled in what I feel I do best, the teaching of children and in dealing with the ongoing relationships as they and I together explore the learning process.

I am, and have been, an active teacher-leader in my State. In that capacity I have listened, and continue to listen, to the concerns teachers have as they instruct in the basic skills—and attempt to improve the intensity and quality of that instruction. While my comments are my own, I feel they represent a broad spectrum of American teachers' feelings and beliefs, concerns and frustrations.

The classrooms we teach in today are very different from classrooms we attended as children, and, for many of us, are totally different from the classrooms we began teaching in in the forties, fifties, and early sixties. Our environments are different, our clientele different, and our public image different. I make no judgments as to what's right or wrong with these changes, only that there is change, as there is change in our society.

Today's teachers, teaching in often trying circumstances, are dedicated. Teachers know many of their products are inadequately prepared. Teachers also face the reasons for these failures and welcome opportunities which will help us do a better job.

If I were asked to dream a little as to what I would offer, from a teacher perspective, for basic skills improvement, based on my observations of what happens within a classroom, I would make the following suggestions:

LOWER CLASS SIZES

The children who come to our classrooms are so diverse. Children with learning problems, children highly motivated, children emotionally disturbed, children disruptive, children battered, children handicapped, children without handicaps—all of these form the typical class of today. While I hesitate to tag any numbers or class limits because varying circumstances make situations more or less difficult, I have found that in my experience each time I have

a small class, especially where there are children with skill deficiencies, a more efficient operation occurs. Consideration must be given so that teachers and children can interact on a better one-to-one basis. Learning is much more effective. Unfortunately, in school district money crunches, class size, because it is an expensive issue, often loses out. Class sizes must be lowered and we must all recognize that numbers do make a difference in skill instruction.

IMPROVE THE QUALITY AND FUNCTION OF TEACHER AIDES

I believe that it is unwise to assume that a teacher aide can replace a teacher, or that an aide, by virtue of employment, can teach. Yet I also believe that the use of aides is a very important, effective tool in the instruction of children in the basic skills.

Currently, in many programs, the use of aides is too restrictive. They are limited in their access to students, and teachers are limited in the ways they can utilize an aide. Teachers, not an administrative bureaucracy, ought to decide how best to use that aide and with what children. An aide, working with brighter children, may give me the opportunity to work with children with serious skills needs.

Many programs offer little formalized or meaningful training for aides. Teachers train for many years to work with children. Aides cannot be dumped into schools at minimum wages, be intimidated in some situations by some children, be taught skills by some teachers in other situations before they can deal with children, and still be effective complements to the skills instruction in that building. There must be intensive, comprehensive, ongoing training for them, and teachers must be a part of the planning for utilization of aides within the classroom.

ASSIST TEACHERS IN PROGRAM MANAGEMENT

As programs change, and as classrooms become more individualized in skills teaching and in the tracking of student needs and goals, teachers need help with the preparation of materials, with the checking of those materials, and with the recordkeeping for each child that accompanies an individualized skills program. Teachers are becoming inundated by a sea of paperwork and relief must be given to let us continue to focus time and our creative talents on the actual tasks of instruction.

MANDATE TEACHER INPUT AND PLANNING TIME

If a teacher is to be an integral part of a basic skills improvement program in a district, then that teacher must be a part of the program planning as it unfolds within the district. Time must be allocated so that classroom teachers are able to assist in the development of a program they will be managing. It is critical that adequate program planning time be assigned for those teachers. Meetings before school in the morning when teachers are concerned about the day's procedures, or after school hours when they are exhausted, are poor times to develop clear, comprehensive working plans for skills improvement. Released time is essential.

Different configurations may be used but some form of released time is essential.

PROVIDE ONGOING TEACHER-PLANNED INSERVICE AND COMPREHENSIVE INSTITUTES AND WORKSHOPS

At a teacher center conference in Chicago a few years ago, I heard a university professor whose job it is to train teachers, make the statement that teachers do not want to be retrained, or helped, that we are all satisfied with what we are. That is simply not true. Teachers need and want inservice. We face new situations each day. We want help in dealing with new programs, new philosophies, new learning problems, and the new generation of children.

We need and want opportunities to improve our skills in programs that are meaningful, continuing, that don't cost us most of our yearly raise, and for which we do not have to drive 40 to 50 miles after a full day of teaching.

Institutes such as those offered under NDEA or National Science Institutes are the kind of things we need. We want learnings that zero in on specific targets, offered at times when teachers are not caught up in the everyday job of teaching, and with financial remuneration. Teacher centers, adequately financed and teacher-operated, offer another source of teacher inservice.

PLACE EFFECTIVE MATERIALS RESOURCES WITHIN EACH BUILDING INVOLVED IN A SKILLS IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

There must be excellent resources within each building. They must be comprehensive and available to each teacher and all children. A room with shelves holding a projector, a few recorders, and a couple of boxes of "canned" learning programs is not a resource center.

A library with random selections of books, without a certificated librarian is not really a library and should not be labeled such.

Materials to assist teachers must be onsite. They must be instructional, usable, manipulative, consumable, and easily replaceable.

MAKE PLACEMENT TESTING MINIMAL AND CORRELATED WITH TEACHER JUDGMENT

We cannot test our children to the limits and then test some more. Children who have the greatest needs for program placements are often frightened of and intimidated by testing. They know they are failures and another test reinforces their beliefs. Tests for diagnostic purposes and to assess growth serve their purposes but children going into special programs must not be tested to the point where their frustrations at being tested become so great that they overshadow the values of the testing. Teacher observation and input needs to be used more often and more effectively.

PARENTING TRAINING

I would hope that very soon communities and government recognize the critical need for training young people to effectively assume the roles of parenting. Many children who arrive at our classroom doors have had 5 years of little language development, other than what was gleaned from TV. Many have lived in a permissive world where it's easier to give in than to say no.

Some children arrive battered, poorly nourished, ill-kept, and unable to begin the work of learning the basic skills. Unless we get to these parents prior to their children's arrival at school, we are going to continue to flay at the winds as we attempt to instruct in skills.

Teachers can offer much help in this area—both in inschool instruction and in advising community groups in the techniques of parenting.

Teachers are truly aware of what's happening or not happening with this Nation's children in our schools. We know better than government and agencies that some children are not mastering basic skills. We are there every day. We are frustrated and saddened when learning doesn't take place. Our expectation for each child is to maximize his or her full potential. We are diminished by the tragedy of thcse children who do not or cannot learn within the present system. We welcome programs and funding which will help us reach those children with special learning needs. We believe we must be integral parts of the planning and operation of those programs to effect the best utilization of time, money, and resources.

[The prepared statement of Ms. Kosa follows:]

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STATEMENT OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ON

BASIC EDUCATION SKILLS ACHIEVEMENT

BEFORE THE

SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND HUMANITIES

OF THE

SENATE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES

PRESENTED BY

MARY KAY KOSA

MONROE, MICHIGAN

JUNE 19, 1979

I am Mary Kay Kosa.

I have been a teacher in the public schools in the state of Michigan all of my adult life -- almost 30 years. I am not, nor have I ever been, a part of the administration or supervision of any federal or state compensatory program, and, therefore, am not skilled in understanding the management or operations of those programs. I am, however, skilled in what I feel I do best, the teaching of children and in dealing with the ongoing relationships as they and I, together, explore the learning process.

I am, and have been, an active teacher-leader in my state. In that capacity I have listened, and continue to listen, to the concerns teachers have as they instruct in the basic skills -- and attempt to improve the intensity and quality of that instruction. While my comments are my own, I feel they represent a broad spectrum of American teachers' feelings, beliefs, concerns, and frustrations.

The classrooms we teach in today are very different from classrooms we attended as children, and, for many of us, are totally different from the classrooms we began teaching in in the forties, fifties, and early sixties. Our environments are different, our clientele different, and our public image different. I make no judgments as to what's right or wrong with these changes -- only that there is change -- as there is change in our society.

Today's teachers, teaching in often trying circumstances, are dedicated. Teachers know many of their products are inadequately prepared. Teachers also face the reasons for these failures and welcome opportunities

which will help us do a better job.

If I were asked to "dream" a little as to what I would offer, from a teacher prospective, for basic skills improvement, based on my observations of what happens within a classroom, I would make the following suggestions:

1. Lower Class Sizes

The children who come to our classrooms are so diverse. Children with learning problems, children highly motivated, children emotionally disturbed, children disruptive, children battered, children handicapped, children without handicaps -- all of these form the "typical" class of today. While I hesitate to tag any numbers or class limits because varying circumstances make situations more or less difficult, I have found that in my experience, each time I have a small class, especially where there are children with skill deficiencies, a more efficient operation occurs. Consideration must be given so that teachers and children can interact on a better one-to-one basis. Learning is much more effective. Unfortunately, in school district money crunches, class size, because it is an expensive issue, often loses out. Class sizes must be lowered and we must all recognize that numbers do make a difference in skill instruction.

2. Improve the Quality and Function of Teacher Aides

I believe that it is unwise to assume that a teacher aide can replace a teacher, or that an aide, by virtue of employment can teach. Yet, I also believe that the use of aides is a

very important, effective tool in the instruction of children in the basic skills.

Currently, in many programs, the use of aides is too restrictive. They are limited in their access to students, and teachers are limited in the ways they can utilize an aide. Teachers, not an administrative bureaucracy, ought to decide how best to use that aide and with what children. An aide, working with brighter children, may give me the opportunity to work with children with serious skills needs.

Many programs offer little formalized, or meaningful training for aides. Teachers train for many years to work with children. Aides cannot be "dumped" into schools at minimum wages, be intimidated in some situations by some children, be taught skills by some teachers in other situations before they can deal with children, and still be effective compliments to the skills instruction in that building. There must be intensive, comprehensive, on-going training for them, and teachers must be a part of the planning for utilization of aides within the classroom.

3. Assist Teachers in Program Management

As programs change, and as classrooms become more individualized in skills teaching and in the tracking of student needs and goals, teachers need help with the preparation of materials, with the checking of those materials, and with the record-keeping for each child that accompanies an individualized skills program. Teachers are becoming inundated by a sea of paperwork and relief must be

given to let us continue to focus time and our creative talents on the actual tasks of instruction.

4. Mandate Teacher Input and Planning Time

If a teacher is to be an integral part of a basic skills improvement program in a district, then that teacher must be a part of the program planning as it unfolds within the district. Time must be allocated so that classroom teachers are able to assist in the development of a program they will be managing. It is critical that adequate program planning time be assigned for those teachers. Meetings before school in the morning when teachers are concerned about the day's procedures, or after school hours when they are exhausted, are poor times to develop clear, comprehensive working plans for skills improvement. Released time is essential. Different configurations may be used but some form of released time is essential.

5. Provide On-Going Teacher Planned In-Service and Comprehensive Institutes and Workshops

At a Teacher Center conference in Chicago a few years ago, I heard a university professor whose job it is to train teachers, make the statement that teachers do not want to be retrained -- or helped -- that we are all satisfied with what we are. That is simply not true. Teachers need and want in-service. We face new situations each day. We want help in dealing with new programs, new philosophies, new learning problems, and the new generation of children.

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6. Place Effective Materials Resources Within Each Building Involved In A Skills Improvement Program

There must be excellent resources within each building. They must be comprehensive and available to each teacher and all children. A room with shelves holding a projector, a few recorders, and a couple of boxes of "canned" learning programs is not a resource center.

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7. Make Placement Testing Minimal and Correlated with Teacher Judgment

We cannot test our children to the limits and then test some more. Children who have the greatest needs for program placements are often frightened of and intimidated by testing. They know they are failures and another test reinforces their beliefs. Tests for diagnostic purposes and to assess growth serve their purposes but children going into special programs must not be tested to the point where their frustrations at being tested become so great that they overshadow the values of the testing. Teacher observation and input needs to be used more often and more effectively.

8. Parenting Training

I would hope that very soon communities and governments recognize the critical need for training young people to effectively assume the roles of parenting. Many children who arrive at our classroom doors have had five years of little language development, other than what was gleaned from T.V. Many have lived in a permissive world where it's easier to give in than to say "No."

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Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Ms. Kosa, for your very fine statement. It is very well thought out and was well delivered.

Mr. Anders?

Mr. ANDERS. Mr. Chairman, my name is Ira Anders and I am a sixth grade teacher in Independence, Mo.

A recent Gallup poll indicated that 83 percent of the public favor a back-to-basics approach to education. That leaves little doubt in anyone's mind about the importance of having these basic skills in school curriculums. Fortunately, those conducting the poll had enough foresight to include items which dealt with the person's definition of "basic skills." Obviously it was found that there are those who consider the basics to be simply reading, writing, and arithmetic. But, interestingly enough, to a substantial number of people the term "basic skills" also includes a number of abstract concepts from "old-fashioned values" to "old-fashioned teaching" which they feel are definitely needed for adequately participating in today's society. So the questions that arise about these so-called basic skills can be very difficult to answer. What items need to be legitimately included in basic skills, how can they best be taught, and, finally, and most difficult, how do you determine when they have been learned?

Edward Meade, Jr., of the Ford Foundation feels that even beyond literacy, persons skilled in such basics as honesty and trust are essential for society in general. It is his feeling that the most important basic of all today needed by society is caring by individuals for others. To him, for children to achieve a basic literacy in reading, writing, and arithmetic without being instilled with the desire and ability to care for others is no progress in civilization.

The Reverend Jesse Jackson told teachers last year that education must "emphasize character and I.Q. education."

"What does it matter," he said, "if we are only teaching better and more intelligent ways to lie, cheat, and steal." It is his feeling that integrity, not intelligence, is the first requirement for making a positive difference in this world.

My own State of Missouri, in its attempt to legislate minimum competency, issued a "Basic Essential Skills Test" which included three areas—reading/language arts, mathematics, and government/economics. There are those who fear, and maybe rightfully so, that this last area of government/economics is being slighted by schools. This absence, it is felt, will surely result in even more apathy and indifference toward voter registration and participation in the political process. There can be no greater danger lurking ahead, threatening the security of our future generations.

The list can go on, including skills necessary for coping with social interaction and emotional growth, one's self concept, sex education, citizenship, vocational and career education, and even antiviolence education. Schools, as seen by some psychologists, have the responsibility of teaching children that most of life's problems cannot be started and solved in 1 hour, with commercials in between.

Again the question arises, how do you determine when these abstract basic skills have been learned? We have a real problem in our highly technological society of attaching any importance to

things that cannot be counted, measured, graphed, compared, and published. But there is little doubt in my mind that basic skills extend far beyond the three R's, the measurable skills. And those basics that fall into the realm of nonmeasurable are equally important in rounding out a person's education and making them useful and responsible citizens of this country.

When asked to make a presentation to this committee, I began to prepare a paper citing ways the Federal Government could help in the teaching of basic skills. My reading and research included the title II proposal, which I commend as being a step in the right direction. But the movement seems to be only a tiny step when, in fact, giant strides are so desperately needed. The proposal seems to again be a Band-Aid approach that will attempt to cover the sore but not cure the disease. There needs to be the demand for emphasis on basic skills, but with this we also need to look for the cause of the deficiencies.

When I asked teachers how they could best be helped in the area of basic skills, the overwhelming response was to lower the class size. New research cited in Phi Delta Kappa, March 1979, and Missouri Schools, May 1979, indicates that, contrary to past belief, lower class size can and does affect the academic achievement if the class size is lowered significantly. Teachers have been saying this for years. I believe that basic skills could be almost completely taught by classroom teachers, even to problem learners, if the class sizes were significantly reduced, especially at the kindergarten through third grade levels.

I know some of you are remembering that a few years back teachers were crying for specialists to take the low achievers out of the room to give them the special help they deserved but were not getting in the classroom. You're right—we did. I was among those teachers crying the loudest. But that was at a time 8 or 10 years ago when my class load was from 38 to 40 students every year and there was no available space or teachers to put any other solution into view. I believe it was right, and I'm very thankful that the Federal Government came through with that particular type of help.

But times are different today. We are closing schools at an unprecedented rate. We are wasting the talent of thousands of unemployed teachers while our schools maintain over-sized classes and cry for more help. Instead of using the declining enrollment to benefit our students it is being virtually ignored. Yes, the situation is different, but we are still using basically the same approach to treat those having problems.

Another reason I believe reduced class size should be a priority is that it is the best way to provide more interpersonal relationships between teacher and student. I have seen reports of research that clearly indicate that if a child has a poor self-concept, no matter what form of instruction we use the learning will be minimal. It's awfully hard to build the self-esteem of certain students when they are in classes of 25 or 35 or more. This problem of poor self-concept is caused and compounded by some basic facts of American society:

One out of every six American youths now lives in a single-parent home. In 1976, more than one million marriages ended in divorce. Even more shocking, in many

cases neither parent wanted custody of the children. In Maryland alone, 6,000 parents went to court to give up responsibility for a teen-age child.

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How can we expect enthusiasm for school and positive self-concepts when our children are reared in such environments?

The typical pre-schooler spends 50 hours a week watching TV. That's more time than is spent in meaningful contact with the parent. And we expect the child to come to school ready to relate to teachers and classmates.

All this can lead children to lash out at society or those around who cause them frustration. In 1978-79, 110,000 teachers were victims of serious assaults. That was an increase of 40,000 over 1977-78. Estimates of the cost of school vandalism range as high as $600 million a year. And yet, for an increasing number of children, school is the only hope they have for being provided orderly socialization and maturation.

Teachers are "throwing in the towel" and getting out of the profession at an alarming rate. It is estimated that the number of teachers with 20 years' or more experience has dropped by half since 1961. We now have the youngest faculties in 15 years. The career teachers see little hope in trying to deal with problems in discipline and lack of student motivation.

These are serious problems which need to be dealt with sooner or later. The sooner the better. I submit that one day soon the responsibilities for dealing with these problems will fall upon the shoulders of the Federal Government. They will become your responsibility in much the same way that curing the ills of society has been delegated to the American public schools—through default. The local governments will not be able to provide the necessary funds. State governments are already abdicating their responsibility using the facade of promoting basic skills in order to cut curriculums and costs. This will leave the Federal Government with its broad base of support to increase its share of the funding through noncategorical, general aid.

Schools have a bigger job in education today than ever before. As they continue to do the job once carried by the family or church the demands upon the schools will increase, not lessen. And yet society will require not only persons with competency but also compassion. In the words of Dag Hammarskjold, we will want children "to become truer, kinder, gentler, warmer, quieter, humbler, so that they can become firmer, stronger, and wiser." I do not believe the three R's basic skills will be sufficient to accomplish this.

Thank you for your time.

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INDEPENDENCE, MISSOURI

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Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Anders. Your statement as well was an excellent one and very useful to have as part of this hearing.

Mr. Herndon, an earlier witness during this set of hearings, Dr. Schain, the principal of a school in Brooklyn called Wingate High School—and there was a segment about Wingate High School on CBS, a series they ran called "Is Anybody Out There Learning?" last summer. Perhaps you saw the CBS series.

Anyway, Dr. Schain from this Wingate High School showed us some examples of teacher-developed textbooks. He felt that many textbooks did not meet the needs of teachers.

Do you have any comment on this textbook question?

Mr. HERNDON. Well, sir, I would like to relate to you a personal experience, one that had a lot to do with me becoming ultimately an association executive rather than a classroom teacher.

As a young teacher in Warren, Mich., I was impressed by the fact—impressed very negatively by the fact that the junior high school in which I was teaching failed about half of the children who failed in ninth grade biology, which was compulsory. I was one of those biology teachers. And I talked to the principal about that and indicated that there had to be something wrong with that curriculum, and that part of the problem was that many of these children couldn't read ninth grade biology texts.

And he asked if I would be willing to work on that, and I indicated that I would.

But I wanted a budget and a flexible budget that I could use to purchase instructional materials and consumable supplies rather than having to peg the curriculum for these nonreading ninth graders to a previously adopted text. He agreed with that.

When I returned to school the following fall, what I found they had done was take the budget that was to have been available to me to purchase better texts for the collegebound ninth graders. And once having made that decision, they had all of these leftover old texts and they decided that I could use those with the nonreading children.

That's the kind of teacher involvement, I think, that is typical and that I referred to earlier, and I was irate, absolutely irate. It happens often. There are large numbers of teachers with the ability and the willingness to prepare their own instructional materials, be they classical texts or other variations, if they only had the time and the resources to do so.

And they have great incentive to do so, because most of them feel that they succeed when their children succeed.

And there have been many exciting projects throughout the country where teachers develop their own materials. They felt better about what they were doing, and likewise their students felt better.

Senator EAGLETON. How can teachers have a greater impact on textbook development? After all, there are many large publishing firms that are in the textbook business—it's a very profitable and lucrative business. I don't think the publishers have sinister, corrupt motives. I presume they are as anxious as anyone to produce textbooks that are usable, relevant, understandable.

Is there a gap between what the publishers are putting out and what is useful in the classroom, and, if so, how do we narrow that gap from a teacher's perspective?

Mr. HERNDON. I think that there is a gap, but I don't perceive that to be the major problem. I think the major problem is one of the behavior of educational agencies. Commercial publishers, I think, do have the best of motives, but they have to respond to profitable markets. And that necessitates almost that they respond to large common denominators rather than highly customized groups of people.

Now, if we were to take all of the materials available on the market and cause teachers to be aware of what those are and grant teachers the authority to freely choose, I think we could make best use of the products that come forth from the publishers. And if that could be supplemented by teachers having the time and the resources to develop even additional materials, as they are required by certain students, I believe that we would find that there are adequate materials and supplies available either commercially or through projects in which they are developed by teachers.

But the most typical situation, for a lot of political and economic reasons, is that a State legislature or a State education agency or a local school board or a local school administration authorizes teachers to use a very limited list of materials. We have an adopted ninth grade text, and that is what every teacher will use with every student, or perhaps we have two adopted texts and if they are available the teacher may have a choice of two.

There are many junior high schools and elementary schools that do not have an adequate library, and if they have a roomful of books they don't have a librarian.

So there are many problems in the practices of education agencies.

What does that mean in terms of Federal legislation? I think it means two things. One, we have indicated that we could use a greater quantity of money. But, second, that the money that is appropriated and is available is focused on teachers and school faculties, and the statutes are drafted in a way that individual teachers and school faculties can access the resources made available by the Federal Government. Because it is administratively more convenient and more tidy, the statutes typically, however, focus on State education agencies and local education agencies.

Our own efforts to research what that means have convinced us absolutely not only that do we not know what happens to many of the dollars appropriated by the Congress, but the Federal Government does not know either. We simply do not know, when you appropriate dollars for an instructional project, what happens to all the dollars that don't wind up on the road and there where the tires are meeting the pavement, and how many of them are being skimmed off by State education agencies and what is being done with them.

We do know that most State education agencies have about half of their people, sometimes significantly more than half, financed by Federal dollars. That's not true of the teachers in the country.

Senator EAGLETON. The NEA was a zealous proponent of teacher centers. We are in now I guess the second year of these centers. There are 12 in number, is that right?

Mr. HERNDON. I believe that's correct—no, there are more than 12.

Mr. MCKENNA. Sixty-six the first year and we have added 12.

Mr. HERNDON. Sixty-six the first year, and I believe we have added 12.

Senator EAGLETON. All right. Although these are obviously relatively new, can we tell anything about their success in developing training and curriculum materials?

Mr. HERNDON. I cannot. There is a member of my staff present who may be able to respond to that, if you would permit me to call upon him.

Senator EAGLETON. Sure. The question deals with teacher centers and do we know enough about them now in order to make a judgment as to their success in developing training and curriculum materials?

Mr. MCKENNA. Probably not for the federally funded ones—but this is only the second year. A good bit of the funding last year, as you know, had to do with planning or getting underway.

The experience in Britain was so successful and the experience with those centers that were already operational and privately funded before was so successful that the promise looked high. And those that are getting underway, the reports on them are very good.

But the experience is very short.

Senator EAGLETON. Sir, could we have your name and title for the record?

Mr. HERNDON. His name is Bernard McKenna. He is consultant in instruction and special development, National Education Association.

Senator EAGLETON. The suggestion has been made that the existing teacher center authority be broadened to encourage training of teachers to better understand tests and how testing can best be used to diagnose educational difficulties.

What would be your comment on this, Mr. Herndon?

Mr. HERNDON. I think it would be very wholesome. I believe that most teachers have not had adequate training in statistics, psychometrics, test construction, validation, et cetera, to the point that many of them are not even capable of looking critically at tests and knowing which can be useful, which might be instructive, which are valid, which are reliable.

Many teachers have those skills but there are many more who do not, and I think it would be useful if they had those skills.

Senator EAGLETON. I don't know whether it was in your testimony or that of Ms. Kosa or Mr. Anders, but some reference was made that the experienced teachers with 20 or more years were leaving the profession at an unprecedented rate.

Was that you, Ms. Kosa?

Ms. KOSA. Yes, that's true. I am one of those teachers. I have not left the profession, but the concern that I find among teachers countrywide in my age bracket is how soon can we get out. It's not because they don't like teaching, and it's not because they don't

like children; it's because the situations that they are facing are becoming very, very difficult. And teacher stress, you know, battle fatigue, whatever term you want to call it, is making classroom teaching a very difficult situation in many areas in the country.

We are facing children, for one thing, very different from children we have ever had before. I consider my teacher training very adequate when I began in 1950, but I was not trained to teach emotionally disturbed children, they were not in a regular classroom; I was not trained to teach children with serious learning disabilities, they were not in the regular classroom; I was not trained to teach handicapped children, they were not in the regular classroom. They are now in the regular classroom. I believe that is good, but teachers must have additional help to make the teaching of those children as effective as the law 94-242 wants it to be.

We also have many, many changes in our society—we know that. We know what's happened out there in that real world. Those children are coming to us from that real world, children with very serious emotional problems, home problems. I could cite you almost a Peyton Place of classes that I have had, and I don't teach in a particularly difficult area of the country. The children come with home situations that make me want to weep for them; it's a very tragic situation. And teachers deal with those each day in an ongoing way. And when you deal with 23 children, and each one of those children has other problems in addition to the learning problems, it is difficult.

Yes, there is a great deal of teacher stress.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Anders, would you want to add to that?

Mr. ANDERS. No, I think she has given a good answer on that, but it is true that it is as concerning to me as I work in the Teacher Association back in Independence and go through the resignations each year of the people who have been very high quality, who have led music groups and so forth, that are just giving up on it; they can no longer tolerate and handle it.

And then they look out into the business world and they move from $17,000 a year to $25,000 a year. Why stay?

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much, Mr. Herndon, Ms. Kosa, Mr. Anders.

Mr. HERNDON. Thank you, sir.

Senator EAGLETON. That will conclude this morning's hearing.

[The subcommittee adjourned at 11:38 a.m.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

TUESDAY, JULY 24, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND HUMANITIES,
COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Washington, D.C.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 1:02 p.m., in room 4232, Dirksen Senate Office Building, Senator Thomas F. Eagleton presiding pro tempore.

Present: Senators Eagleton, Williams, and Javits.

OPENING STATEMENT OF SENATOR EAGLETON

Senator EAGLETON. Good afternoon, ladies and gentlemen.

The Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities of the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources is once again in session to conduct hearings with respect to basic skills achievement.

This hearing of the Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities is the ninth in a series which began back on February 13 to inquire into basic skills achievement in our schools.

To date, the subcommittee has heard a wide range of testimony—some of it extremely pessimistic about the state of learning of the basic skills, some of it remarkably bullish about improvements. Most of it comes from experts in one or more of the many facets of basic skills—learning reading, writing, testing and evaluation, research and policymaking, State and local school administrators, and teaching. We have held three field hearings in three large metropolitan area schools, two of them in the inner city, one in the suburbs, during which we heard from students, teachers, principals, and superintendents. Not infrequently, we found that those closest to the firing line, those working directly every day with the big, persistent problems of our schools were the most hopeful about the future. The field hearings particularly have reminded us again that a crucial element in making things better is the quality of the principal.

This afternoon we will hear from witnesses representing two areas new to our hearings, textbook publishers from all educational levels and the community college sector. In different ways, both are heavily involved with basic skills achievement.

As we all recall from our schooldays, there were a few textbooks well scribbled, moth eaten, rained on, sweated over, and nearly as well known to use as our pet dogs—and which we mostly forgot after school was over. One textbook which I remember with warmth and pleasure, unlike most of the others, was David Muz-

zey's "American History." It was well written and vivid. It helped make American history my favorite subject in school. In a recent series of articles in the "New Yorker," Frances Fitzgerald said that the textbook publishers are no longer turning out books like that. Now they are "developed, not written, a process involving large numbers of people and compromises," a process which "almost necessarily remove(s) all individuality from the writing, homogenizing it so that it is in fact nearly unreadable."

We look forward to hearing from our friends in the textbook publishing field about this criticism and other matters.

In addition, our subcommittee will hear from a community college president whose institution is located in one of the old and hard-pressed cities of the northeast, Paterson, N.J. He has turned around his college in a 3-year period, from a downhill slide into worse than mediocrity to one of the foremost community colleges in the State. Students are proud to attend and employment recruiters are banging on the doors.

I am glad to have Dr. Mellander with us. In the course of these hearings, I have been particularly interested in inviting witnesses who are responsible for success stories. People whose institutions have overcome extraordinary difficulties to become topnotch. Common features of these situations are the establishment of clear goals for students and the institution itself, the providing of realistic options to meet these goals, and great skill, hard work, and special qualities of leadership. We are looking forward to what Dr. Mellander can tell us about how he improved basic skills achievement at his community college.

On behalf of the subcommittee, I welcome today's witnesses and look forward to their contribution to the subject matter before us.

Our first witness is Dr. Gustavo A. Mellander, president of Passiac County Community College. I believe Senator Williams will appear shortly to introduce Dr. Mellander. But I would suggest that the doctor come forward and begin with his testimony, and then Senator Williams may introduce him, of course, when he does in fact arrive.

STATEMENT OF DR. GUSTAVO A. MELLANDER, PRESIDENT, PASSAIC COUNTY COMMUNITY COLLEGE, PATERSON, N.J.

Dr. MELLANDER. Good afternoon, Senator Eagleton.

I am Gustavo A. Mellander, and I am the president of Passaic County Community College, located in Paterson, N.J. I am pleased to be here this afternoon.

As you know, I have prepared a rather lengthy presentation, but pursuant to your request, I have summarized my comments to 10 minutes.

I might indicate, I shared my views with some of my colleagues, and many urged me to make it very clear that I was speaking only for myself. In fact, when I left this morning my goldfish reminded me that I was not authorized to speak for him either.

Senator, I fear that our educational systems are antiquated, poorly focused, and misdirected. To put it succinctly, something has gone wrong in education; not just in higher education—and not just in New Jersey—but throughout the Nation. I think we can best describe our malady as a deterioration of academic standards.

To many, it is self-evident. Some see it in the lower college entrance scores, others when they try to cope with their freshman classes, and still others by the inadequate performances of college graduates.

What has gone wrong? One of the obvious problems is that students cannot read or write. They cannot read and write when they complete their high school studies and, as you know, a shocking number of college graduates are very, very deficient in their reading, writing, and speaking abilities as well. And I am not even going to mention mathematical skills—or the ability to think and reason logically. The story there is far too dismal.

We have failed, and we have failed because we have ignored the basics. We have disparaged achievement and accomplishments as important goals in life.

We cannot allow the present trend to continue without damaging the very fabric of our society. We must return to "step 1," or what I call "no-nonsense" education. Two and two equals four; not 3.8 or 4.7. We must be precise and demanding in our education.

High school graduates should receive a sound, useful education, not a phony diploma, not a tinsel certificate. If we do not provide them with that, yet another generation will be condemned to a life of frustration, to a life of not reaching their true potential. Down that mean road it is easy to see a life of misery, the necessity of living on welfare, and perhaps even the possibility of drifting into a life of crime.

Without being able to read and write, one cannot reach their true potential in our highly technological age. If the Nation's leadership does not identify, support, and encourage high academic standards as one of its top priorities then there is little doubt that we will cripple yet another generation.

I am tired of social promotion. It does not help society and it most assuredly does not help the individual involved. I am tired of—not one, not hundreds—but thousands of high school graduates entering college without being able to read, or write, or compute at the college level.

Why did we graduate them? Does anyone believe that we really help them by giving them a high school diploma, And I emphasize the word "giving."

Do you know that people have graduated from our high schools, have been awarded diplomas, and yet cannot read a classified advertisement or a menu in a restaurant?

The widely popular gospel of allowing students to "do their thing" without discipline, without direction, or without guidance is extremely destructive to education, and it is destructive because it never affords the students the opportunities and the pressures necessary to develop a desire to reach their true potential. Further, they are denied the opportunity to hone their skills, the better to lead a full life.

How do we turn this around? By having measurable achievement standards along each step of the way, and by insisting that they are successfully mastered before the student is promoted. It is as simple as that—we draw the line and we hold the line. Let me repeat that, we draw the line and we hold the line. And it must start at the first grade.

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I suggest that perhaps we should spend less, not more money, on higher education. I repeat, perhaps we should spend less. I know that idea will go over like a lead balloon among many of my colleagues. But I will stick to my guns. Society should reassess its needs. And I suggest dollars allocated for education should be diverted to where they are most desperately needed.

I would suggest——

Senator EAGLETON. Doctor, if I may interrupt at this point, Senator Williams is with us. We are delighted to have him here. He is the chairman of the Full Committee on Labor and Human Resources, and active in the education function of that committee, as well.

I will yield to him at this time, and we will put his full remarks in the record.

Senator WILLIAMS. Well, I appreciate that very much, Mr. Chairman, and am very happy to have my introduction of Dr. Mellander included in the record. I am sure what I am saying here probably will be appreciated without my saying it, by having Dr. Mellander already into his testimony.

So why do I not include this in the record, listen, and at a later time I would also like to have an introduction of another witness, Dr. David Amerman, appear.

This is a New Jersey day here in this committee, and we are very honored to have two outstanding witnesses in the education community. Dr. Mellander, of course, from Passaic County Community College, and Mr. Amerman from Prentice Hall, one of our great publishing houses, and a resident of New Jersey.

STATEMENT OF HON. HARRISON A. WILLIAMS, JR., A. U.S. SENATOR FROM THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY

Senator WILLIAMS. Mr. Chairman, I am pleased to introduce the first witness for today's hearings on basic skills, Dr. Gustavo A. Mellander, president of Passaic County Community College, located in Paterson, N.J.

The Passaic County Community College is fast developing as one of the showcase institutions of its kind. It is an excellent example of open access of higher education for all persons and of a guarantee that standards will be maintained so that those graduating from the college can have confidence in their college work and degrees.

Since 1975, the enrollment in this institution has tripled. This is a development contrary to national trends in higher education which this year witnesses a slight decrease in enrollments. That decrease is expected to grow nationally, and according to a study conducted for the full committee by Duke University could result in a 15- to 20-percent loss in traditional enrollment by the end of the next decade. Passaic County College may well have the key to attracting and keeping traditional and nontraditional students as an enterprise to sustain higher education as the baby boom fades and as higher costs confront colleges.

President Mellander has been direct about the need to keep basic standards in place in order to restore confidence in college education. He is in an excellent position to inform this committee from his own experience and as an educator with breadth of vision. His

accomplishments have been noted in U.S. News & World Report during the past year.

I am most pleased President Mellander is able to be with us today and will share his ideas with us.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Senator Williams. And the two introductions will appear at the appropriate point in the record, and we appreciate your stopping by.

Doctor, you may continue.

Dr. MELLANDER. Fine, thank you.

Let me thank Senator Williams for being here this afternoon, and thank him publicly for all he had done for education.

I would suggest that the teaching of reading and writing and mathematics should have top priority. I suggest we invest more in secondary and elementary level education. Everybody need not go to college, but every citizen should receive a sound basic education on which to build his or her life.

I am not saying that we should merely pour more money into the existing elementary and secondary systems, for obviously I have serious reservations about their effectiveness. But I am saying that we can best help students by providing them with the basic learning tools long before they reach college age.

The decline in academic skills and achievement is directly attributable to the disintegration and degeneration of the curriculum. If reading assignments are reduced, if weekly theme papers disappear, if true and false tests replace essay examinations, can anyone be surprised that students cannot read and write?

We must return to traditional classroom assignments and values. Teachers must assign more reading, more writing, and in general more homework every single evening. But our biggest problem is not the curriculum, or the teacher or the administrators. Our biggest problem is the breakdown of educational leadership. Educational authority has been weakened.

Most teachers want to teach, and most administrators wish to do their job well. And by and large, most are capable of doing so. But they are hampered by the breakdown in educational authority.

I am not saying we should go back to the days of David Copperfield. I am not saying we should beat children. Schools should not be prisons—but they are not playgrounds either. Education is serious business. It is not a game, and it is not necessarily fun. That is why they used to call major fields of study disciplines. One must discipline oneself to learn.

Schools should reflect the world. It is important to arrive on time. It is important to complete one's assignments. Few grownups can arrive at their job ill-prepared day after day. Why do we mislead and misdirect children by allowing them to acquire destructive habits?

School authority must be reestablished. As long as teachers hesitate to assign reading and writing assignments because they do not receive the administrative and parental support they need, as long as principals feel they cannot expel repeatedly disruptive and violent students because community organizations and the courts will not allow such expulsions to stand, as long as students feel it is perfectly acceptable to take as little English, math, science, and history as possible because nobody authoritatively tells them other-

wise, as long as those items are true, our educational problems will remain unsolved. It is as simple as that.

In closing, let me say a word about money. I note that the legislation would provide some $54 million to be spent over a 5-year period.

Let me propose something slightly different: Take the $54 million, put them in a bag and throw the bag into the Potomac River. It will do just about as much good—and significantly less harm.

You do not have to spend yet millions more to improve education. Private schools are providing better education for less money than the public ones. Is it not curious that education in this country has gone downhill during the very time there were gigantic expenditures of Federal and State dollars?

Let us not establish yet another layer of bureaucracy and Government programs. Do not do it. Do not waste the money.

I would submit that this committee, this Congress, and this Government can best serve education, not by spending more money, but by becoming public advocates for high academic standards and by reaffirming the need for strong educational authority.

You are in positions of authority and high visibility. If you speak out for high academic standards every opportunity you have, it will have a tremendous impact.

The President of the United States should announce, "We are going to have the best public school system in the world. We are going to reestablish discipline. We are going to emphasize reading and writing." If he did that, the effect would be electrifying. The message would be clear. Such a statement would send shock waves throughout the educational community, and his words would be the basis for a self-fulfilling prophesy.

If Senators, Congressmen, Governors, and commissioners of education throughout the Nation did the same, those in education, as well as students and parents would get the message, and accept the challenge.

We are suffering from a lack of leadership, we are suffering from inaction. It can be turned around, and we need not spend a fistful of money to do it.

Thank you, Senator.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Doctor.

A recent U.S. News & World Report article paid tribute to you in an article entitled "Three Success Stories in Improving Education," and made reference to conditions at the Passaic County Community College before you arrived as the president, and then some of the changes you initiated when you became chief administrator at that college.

Could you tell me what things you did, specifically, with respect to reading and writing skills, as part of any changes that you instituted at Passaic County Community College?

Dr. MELLANDER. The first thing we did was to charge every faculty member with the responsibility of being an English teacher. Regardless of their discipline, math, physics, science, or history, we told them they were also English teachers, and they had a responsibility to help their students to become more proficient in the spoken and written word.

Second, we tested the students, and we were surprised to discover that half of them tested out—these were high school graduates—half of them tested out below the 10th grade level in reading, writing, arithmetic.

We established a learning center, noncollege credit, to which students must come 5 days a week for at least 6 hours a day. It is a very intensive program. They are expected to be there. We are harsh on cuts and absence. The student comes 5 days a week, for 30 hours a week, and receives intensive training in the basic skills.

We have had some marvelous success stories, and some outrageous failures as well. By instituting that intensive concentration program on the basic skills, without college credit—and I made that very clear to the students—I think we have set the proper academic tone.

We also suspended a third of our student body. Previously, nobody had ever been suspended from that college in the 6 years of its existence. We set up a probationary period. After two semesters, unless students were making reasonable progress toward graduation, they would be suspended.

Two things are interesting. Our enrollments are booming. Two years ago we had 1,300 students. Last year we had 1,600 students. This last spring we had 2,519 students, and we expect 3,400 in September. At a time when other colleges are having difficulty attracting students, we are going up 20 and 30 percent a year.

We drew the line 4 years ago. We insisted on high academic standards, and we are moving in that direction.

One more point. Four years ago only 36 percent of our nursing graduates passed the State boards. Only 36 percent passed. This last year 83 percent passed, and we expect to be in the 90's this year.

I think we owe it to our students not to graduate them until we have some reason to believe that they do indeed have the knowledge we pretend they have.

Senator EAGLETON. This 30 hours a week of intensive remedial work, or reading and writing, were students who were put in that curriculum, thus, not permitted to take regular courses at the community college?

Dr. MELLANDER. By and large. A few were allowed to take one or two courses. We found it psychologically helpful. It makes a difference to take one or two college-level courses. If they test out at the 9th or 10th grade level, we let them try a college level course.

We have tutors to help them in that program. It is very important, Senator, psychologically, that they feel like other students. We did not build a learning center off campus, in another town, for "nonstudents." They are right in the college. They attend class in regular college classrooms, and the intermingle with regular college students.

Senator EAGLETON. And you began this program in 1978?

Dr. MELLANDER. No; 1976.

Senator EAGLETON. 1976?

Dr. MELLANDER. Fall of 1976.

Senator EAGLETON. How many students went into that 30-hour-a-week remedial program?

Dr. MELLANDER. I would say about 500 the first year. About half of our population at that time.

Senator EAGLETON. Now, did that discipline go on for a full academic year?

Dr. MELLANDER. Yes. But it could go on for just one semester, or half a semester. Whenever students test out at the 11th grade level, we allow them to pursue college level courses. Normally, after two semesters.

Senator EAGLETON. How may of the 500 ultimately went on into the regular community college?

Dr. MELLANDER. Approximately half.

Senator EAGLETON. The other half either dropped out in time, or conceivably might have gone to some other institution?

Dr. MELLANDER. That is correct. Most of them dropped out. We have kept a careful followup study on them, we write them, and our counselors phone them. We encourage them to come back and continue their education. We do not write them off. But many do drop out for a while.

Senator EAGLETON. If the half did go on, do you have any statistics of how many of them completed whatever their curriculum was?

Dr. MELLANDER. Yes. Two-thirds of those completed within 2 years. Some dropped out, some did not succeed academically. Others transferred to other institutions. Two-thirds stayed with us or went on to another college.

Senator EAGLETON. In 1977, how big was the group, can you recall?

Dr. MELLANDER. Yes. In 1977 it was, I would say, about 700.

Senator EAGLETON. It was a bigger group?

Dr. MELLANDER. It was a bigger group. We are intercity, as you probably know, and we have a serious problem with our high schools in the area. We found it interesting that the number of regular college students, and the number of noncollege students increased in both categories. And a lot of older people, 25, 26, and 27, came back for remedial work, because they were trapped in nowhere jobs.

I should indicate, we also have a very extensive evening, Saturday, and Sunday program. There are a lot of people in unimportant positions, as they perceive them. People who are trapped by a lack of education. So we established classes on Saturday and Sunday and in the evenings. Very serious students, as you can well imagine, were attracted.

Senator EAGLETON. Of that 700 in 1977, about half of them go on to a regular academic routine?

Dr. MELLANDER. Right. Normally, half go on, two-thirds complete 2 years of college.

Senator EAGLETON. So we have it for the record, what were the figures in 1978? How many went into the remedial program in 1978?

Dr. MELLANDER. In 1978, I think about 850.

Senator EAGLETON. The program gets bigger every year?

Dr. MELLANDER. It gets bigger. There is a change, however, in the age group. They get older and older. More and more people in

their late twenties, who are searching for a way to get out of their present existence, come to us.

Senator EAGLETON. How many high schools feed into your junior community college?

Dr. MELLANDER. There are 17 high schools in the county, but the vast preponderance come from the two high schools in Paterson and the public high school in Passaic. I would say 65 percent of our students come from those three high schools.

Senator EAGLETON. Have you had any relationship with those two high schools in Paterson, and the one high school in Passaic, to try to beef up their activities in the basic skills?

Dr. MELLANDER. Yes. Quite a bit.

In fact, I was on the Paterson Board of Education, and thus had even more of an entree into the public school system. Yes, we have tried to do that. Not very successfully. Education is extremely bureaucratic and paranoidal as well.

Senator EAGLETON. In recent years, since you initiated your program, have they initiated any kind of a remedial program in the basic skills?

Dr. MELLANDER. They have begun a few remedial programs. We have a large percentage of Hispanic students who take ESL, English as a second language, but and not eligible of compensatory education, which is a flaw in the law, I think. If you are an ESL student, you cannot qualify for compensatory education.

If I can just comment parenthetically, what we have tried to do, we have tried to liberate teachers, allowed teachers to teach, not try to make them into clerks, not try to burden them with paperwork, or other duties beyond teaching.

I think we can hire administrators and clerks to do that. But I think we have to liberate teachers. We have to support teachers, and we have done that. On the other hand, we have also dismissed teachers who were not teaching.

Senator EAGLETON. Our next panel of witnesses will discuss the impact of the textbook publishing industry on academic achievement.

There was an article in the New York Times a few years ago that indicated that most of the pressure for simplified textbooks comes from community colleges.

Would you care to comment on that allegation?

Dr. MELLANDER. If that is true, it is wrong! Colleges should insist on high academic standards, and not force the publishers, or anybody else, to lower standards. Perhaps the publishers should tell us that, and resist us.

Senator EAGLETON. Senator Williams?

Senator WILLIAMS. No.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very, very much. You have a very interesting program at Passaic County Community College. And your emphasis on remedial work is, I must say, from our hearings, most unusual. Not that there is not remedial work done in colleges and universities and community colleges, but not enough is being done.

The assumptions are being made that high school graduates have the requisite basic skills to go on in the curriculum. And the facts are, very sadly, many students do not have those basic skills, and

you are trying to compensate for that by the intense remedial program you are initiating. I find that very interesting.

Thank you, Doctor.

Dr. MELLANDER. Thank you, Senator.

[The prepared statement and additional material supplied by Dr. Mellander follow:]

TESTIMONY OF DR. GUSTAVO A. MELLANDER

PRESIDENT OF PASSAIC COUNTY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

PATERSON, NEW JERSEY

ON THE NEED FOR A NATIONAL BASIC SKILLS PROGRAM AND HOW TO ACHIEVE IT

TO BE PRESENTED

TO THE

UNITED STATES SENATE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

SENATOR THOMAS F. EAGLETON, CHAIRMAN

TUESDAY, JULY 24, 1979

WASHINGTON, D. C.

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE TEXT

1. Our educational systems are antiquated, poorly focused and misdirected.

2. Students graduate from high school and sometimes from college without being able to read, write or compute.

3. We must eliminate phony diplomas and tinsel certificates.

4. We must eliminate social promotion.

5. We should have measurable achievement standards from the first grade on up and we must insist that they are successfully mastered before a student is promoted.

6. We must draw the line and we must hold the line. And we should start at the first grade.

7. Perhaps less money should be spent on higher education and more on elementary and secondary education.

8. Everybody need not go to college, but everybody should be afforded a sound basic education on which to build their lives.

9. The decline in academic skills and achievement is directly attributable to the disintegration and degeneration of the curriculum. If reading assignments are reduced, if weekly theme papers disappear, if true and false tests replace essay examinations, can anyone be surprised that students can't read and write?

10. A word about money. The Committee is considering legislation that would appropriate $54,000,000.00 over the next five years for a slew of new programs.

    I suggest they take the $54,000,000.00, put them in a bag and throw the bag into the Potomac River. It will do just about as much good--and significantly less harm.

    Let's not establish yet another layer of bureaucracy and government programs. Don't do it. Don't waste the money.

11. I would submit that this Committee, this Congress and this Government can best serve education, not by spending more money, but by becoming public advocates for high academic standards and by reaffirming the need for strong educational authority.

12. The President of the United States should announce;
    "We are going to have the best public school system in the world. We are going to reestablish discipline. We are going to emphasize reading and writing."
    The effect would be electrifying. The message would be clear. Such a statement would send shock waves throughout the educational community and his words would be the basis for a self-fulfilling prophecy.

    If Senators, Congressmen, Governors, and Commissioners of Education throughout the nation did the same, those in education as well as students and parents would get the message--and accept the challenge.

PASSAIC COUNTY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

College Boulevard, Paterson, New Jersey 07509 (201) 279-5000

OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

My name is Gustavo A. Mellander, and I am the President of Passaic County Community College, located in Paterson, New Jersey.

I am glad to have the opportunity of meeting with you and exchanging views.

I shared some of my ideas with a number of my colleagues. Many urged me to make it clear that I am speaking only for myself. In fact, as I left this morning my goldfish reminded me that I was not authorized to speak for him.

So, let me emphasize that my comments are wholly mine and do not reflect those of any group to which I may belong.

Now, with that out of the way, a word or two on my views.

Like Dr. Pangloss, I always believed this was the best of all worlds. I have also believed that education provided the key to improve upon that world even further. The key whereby we could unlock minds and liberate souls. I believed that all of man's ills could be cured through education. I even believed that man could be civilized. A never ceasing project since every generation is born ignorant and uncivilized.

I still believe that education is the key to the future, but I fear that our educational systems are antiquated, poorly focused and misdirected.

To put it succinctly, something has gone wrong in education; not just in higher education--and not just in New Jersey--but throughout the nation. I think we can best describe our malady as a deterioration of academic standards.

To many, it is self-evident. Some see it in the lower College entrance scores, others when they try to cope with their Freshman classes, and still others by the inadequate performances of college graduates.

Many are dissatisfied with what we in the academic world produce. Luckily for us, given our crucial role in society, and luckily for the world we hope to serve--we are our severest critics. We are also in the best position to effectuate change.

What has gone wrong?

What has gone wrong? And what implications and obligations for change are incumbent upon us? How should all of this affect our plans for the future?

What has gone wrong? One of the obvious problems is that students cannot read or write. They can't read and write when they complete their high school studies and, as you know, a shocking number of college graduates are very, very deficient in their reading, writing and speaking abilities as well. And, I'm not even going to mention mathematical skills--or the ability to think and reason logically. The story there is far too dismal.

We have failed, and we have failed because we have ignored the basics. We have disparaged achievement and accomplishments as important goals in life.

As Paul Copperman has said in his recent book, The Literary Hoax, "An extremely permissive and weak educational philosophy has created a weak and insipid curriculum. America is no longer providing a top-flight education to her students."

We can not allow the present trend to continue without damaging the

very fabric of our society. We must return to "step one", or what I call "no-nonsense" education. Two and two equals four; not 3.8 or 4.7. We must be precise and demanding in our education.

High school graduates should have received a sound, useful education, not a phony diploma, not a tinsel certificate. If we do not provide them with that, yet another generation will be condemned to a life of frustration, to a life of not reaching their true potential. Down that mean road it is easy to see a life of misery, the necessity of living on welfare and perhaps even the possibility of drifting into a life of crime.

Without being able to read and write, one cannot reach their true potential in our highly technological age. If the nation's leadership does not identify, support and encourage high academic standards as one of its top priorities, then there is little doubt that we will cripple yet another generation.

I am tired of social promotion. It doesn't help society and it most assuredly doesn't help the individual involved.

I am tired of -- not one, not hundreds -- but of thousands of high school graduates entering college without being able to read, or write, or compute at the college level.

Why did we graduate them? Does anyone really believe that we help them by giving them a high school diploma? And I emphasize the word "giving."

Do you know that people have graduated from our high schools, have been awarded diplomas and yet can't read a classified advertisement or a menu in a restaurant?

How long do we expect the people of our nation to put up with this?

Not only must we insist on preciseness, but we must move away from that strange heresy hatched by that bevy of fuzzy-minded pseudo-intellectuals who blandly proclaim that there are no values and that nothing is really necessary or important.

Their widely popular gospel of allowing students to "do their thing" without discipline, without direction, or without guidance is extremely destructive to education. And it is destructive because it never affords the students the opportunities and the pressures necessary to develop a desire to reach their true potential. Further, they are denied the opportunity to hone their skills, the better to lead a full life.

By not providing them with the necessary tools, we rob our students of their ability to really discover who they are--and to really "do their thing" properly and completely.

We have misled them by not leading them. We have robbed them of valuable years. We have taken their parents' money under false pretenses. We have inflicted severe and perhaps irreparable damage by not challenging our students, by not helping them discover who they really are.

How do we turn this around?

How do we turn this around? By having measurable achievement standards along each step of the way and by insisting that they are successfully mastered before the student is promoted.

It is as simple as that -- we draw the line and we hold the line. Let me repeat that, we draw the line and we hold the line. And it must start at the elementary school level.

If a person does not complete what he or she must have by the end of the first grade--then we don't promote him or her. It's as simple as that.

We draw the line and we hold the line and we start in the first grade.

How successful can we be in providing a high-quality college education to students who have not mastered the rudiments of studying or communicating in their native tongue? We can't and therefore we lower standards. And many colleges throughout this land have done just that in the past decade. Don't for one minute be deceived on that score.

I suggest that perhaps we should spend less--not more money on higher education. I repeat, perhaps we should spend less. I know that idea will go over like a lead balloon among many of my colleagues. But, I'll stick to my guns. Society should reassess its needs. And, I suggest dollars allocated for education should be diverted to where they are most desperately needed.

I would suggest that the teaching of reading and writing and mathematics should have top priority. I suggest we invest more in secondary and elementary level education. Everybody need not go to college. But every citizen should receive a solid basic education. An education on which to build his or her life.

I am not saying that we should merely pour more money into the existing elementary and secondary systems, for obviously I have serious reservations about their effectiveness. I am saying that we can best help students by providing them with the basic learning tools long before they come to college. Long before they come to college, long before they pursue other post-secondary education experiences.

Once again the problem is a nationwide deterioration of basic academic skills and knowledge. As Mr. Copperman stated:

> Students do not read, write, or compute as well as they did ten years ago. Nor do they know as much about history, science, or literature. The deterioration

> starts at about fourth grade and worsens steadily throughout junior and senior high school. The decline in academic skills is not restricted to poor, inner-city or minority students. Middle or upper socio-economic status does not protect a student against the decline. Nor is the deterioration restricted to average or below-average-ability students. Above average and even exceptional intelligence is not protecting students against the decline.

The decline in academic skills and achievement is directly attributable to the disintegration and degeneration of the curriculum. If reading assignments are reduced, if weekly theme papers disappear, if true and false tests replace essay examinations, can anyone be surprised that students can't read and write?

We must return to traditional classroom assignments and values. Teachers must assign more reading, more writing and in general more homework every single evening.

But our biggest problem is not the curriculum or the teacher or the administrators. Our biggest problem is the breakdown of educational leadership. Educational authority has been weakened.

Most teachers want to teach and most administrators wish to do their job well. And by and large, most are capable of doing so. But they are hampered by the breakdown in educational authority. We must return that authority if we are to have a fighting chance.

I'm not saying we should go back to the days of David Copperfield. I'm not saying we should beat children. Schools should not be prisons--but they aren't playgrounds either. Education is serious business. It's not a game and it isn't necessarily "fun." That's why they used to call major fields of study "disciplines." One must discipline oneself to learn.

Schools should reflect the world. It's important to arrive on time. It's important to complete one's assignments. Few grown-ups can arrive at their job ill-prepared day after day. Why do we mislead and misdirect children by allowing them to acquire destructive habits?

Society must reaffirm traditional goals. We need strong educational authority. Unless that is reestablished--all is lost.

Most Americans appreciate that. Note that most demanding prep schools have an abundance of students. Note the rise of interest and attendance in parochial education. And, the record will show that their academic achievements are higher than their public school cohorts.

School authority must be reestablished. As long as teachers hesitate to assign reading and writing assignments because they do not receive the administrative and parental support they need, as long as principals feel they cannot expel repeatedly disruptive and violent students because community organizations and the courts will not allow such expulsions to stand, as long as students feel it is perfectly acceptable to take as little English, math, science and history as possible because nobody authoritatively tells them otherwise, our educational problems will remain unsolved. It's as simple as that.

In closing, let me say a word about money. I note that the proposed legislation would provide some fifty-four million dollars to be spent over a five-year period.

Let me propose something slightly different: Take the $54 million dollars, put them in a bag and throw the bag into the Potomac River. It will do just about as much good--and significantly less harm.

You don't have to spend yet millions more to improve education. Private schools are providing better education for less money than the public ones. Isn't it curious that education in this country has gone downhill during the very time there were gigantic expenditures of Federal and State dollars.

Let's not establish yet another layer of bureaucracy and government programs. Don't do it. Don't waste the money.

I would submit that this Committee, this Congress and this Government can best serve education, not by spending more money, but by becoming public advocates for high academic standards and by reaffirming the need for strong educational authority.

You are in positions of authority and high visibility. If you speak out for high academic standards every opportunity you have, it will have a tremendous impact.

The President of the United States should announce, "We are going to have the best public school system in the world. We are going to reestablish discipline. We are going to emphasize reading and writing." The effect would be electrifying. The message would be clear. Such a statement would send shock waves throughout the educational community and his words would be the basis for a self-fulfilling prophecy.

If Senators, Congressmen, Governors, and Commissioners of Education throughout the nation did the same, those in education as well as students and parents would get the message--and accept the challenge.

We are suffering from a lack of leadership, from inaction. It can be turned around--and we need not spend a fistful of money to do it.

U. S. NEWS & WORLD REPORT

Special Report

Three Success Stories In Improving Education

Firing bad teachers and rewarding bright students—these are among methods used by a trio of schools that are models for excellence.

Despite widespread complaints about education in America, hundreds of schools in every part of the nation are quietly and dramatically improving the quality of instruction.

Many of these schools, though faced with problems such as disadvantaged students, red tape and inadequate funding, have managed to overcome the difficulties and provide top-flight courses—resulting in steadily rising achievements by young scholars.

Correspondents of *U.S. News & World Report* took an in-depth look at three widely separated schools—a two-year community college, a Catholic elementary school and an inner-city high school—that beat the odds and succeeded under conditions that meant failure for others.

Change, the Hard Way

PATERSON, N.J.

Three years ago, Passaic County Community College in Northern New Jersey was called a disgrace by state education officials.

In 1978, the State Legislature voted a special appropriation to this urban, two-year school in recognition of its nonsense, rigorous and effective approach to education.

The turnaround came after a tough-minded educator named Gustavo A. Mellander left a job with the State Department of Education in April of 1975 to become president of the struggling college, where 40 percent of the student body is black and 30 percent is Hispanic.

Within a year, Mellander dismissed 64 teachers and administrators as incompetent or unqualified, canceled the basketball schedule by placing one half of the team on academic probation and warned those incoming students who were not prepared for college studies that they were facing more than a year of remedial studies before they could start taking college-level courses.

> *"I had one thing to get across," Mellander said. "This is first and foremost an academic institution. Everything else is secondary."*

"I had one thing to get across," Mellander said. "This is first and foremost an academic institution. Everything else is secondary."

Such was not the case three years ago. Passaic graduates were not accepted as transfers by four-year schools in New Jersey because of the school's reputation. Most of the college's nursing graduates could not pass state licensing examinations.

Standards were so low that accreditation was refused. County officials repeatedly rejected plans to build a new campus. As a result, students attended their classes in an abandoned telephone-company building and a weather-beaten Elks lodge gymnasium.

Teachers did not keep office hours for student consultation, and many professors had assistants teach their courses.

Worst of all, no D's or F's were given, so students weren't permitted to fail. Students could graduate without having written an essay examination because only true-false tests were required of them.

"The school was on the brink of closing down for a year to reorganize," Mellander said, "but I felt that a good community college could be of great service to the area, and I was afraid if we shut down, it would never reopen, because the hostility against it was so great."

That hostility came from the State Department of Higher Education, the Legislature, the community and the students themselves. All had seen the school deteriorate steadily since its founding in 1971.

When the crackdown began, the school reinstituted tougher academic courses, required that students attend class and complete their homework and began offering vocational subjects—such as retailing, marketing, data processing and banking—as well as the traditional courses.

Students were given a year to adjust, but after the fall, 1976, semester, 137 of 1,000 students were suspended for a year and another 341 were placed on probation.

Bitter protest erupted from many people in the community. Said Mellander: "I was denounced as a racist, and my resignation was demanded. One dean's car was firebombed, and I received threatening phone calls day and night."

The teachers' union filed protests against the new Mellander regime, and residents in the Passaic area denounced the cancellation of the college's basketball schedule.

> *"... I was afraid if we shut down, it would never reopen, because the hostility against it was so great."*

The furor subsided when the results of the new program came in. Last year, 88 percent of the nursing graduates passed the state certification examination, compared with 38 percent in

College President Mellandrv used tough, no-holds-barred strategy to get results.

1975. About half the students who were placed on academic probation have gotten off after a semester. Other schools have begun to accept more Passaic graduates, and employers now are sending their recruiters to the school.

Community support rallied, too. County freeholders recognized the school's progress. Black and Hispanic leaders provided additional backing. Most important, morale at the institution soared.

"Students and teachers were saying, 'At last, we are a college,' " said Jessie Gist, who is the dean of student affairs. "Those who stayed and graduated felt proud that they achieved something difficult."

Officials note [illegible] not everyone has succeeded, a [illegible] that they say they had expected [illegible] the changed environment. M[illegible] of the school's enrollment comes out of poor neighborhoods and inferior public schools and is unprepared for college.

About 30 percent of the students who take remedial courses find the demands of the program too intense and eventually choose to drop out. An additional 20 percent fail to meet minimum 10th-grade-level standards. "We just can't take someone who reads at a fourth-grade level and get him ready for college in a year," Gist said. "But we are offering an opportunity for students who never thought they could go to college."

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U.S. NEWS & WORLD REPORT
9/6/78

Senator EAGLETON. We have a panel of three witnesses. Would you please come forward, Mr. Lawrence Jackel, Litton Educational Publications; Mr. Richard Gladstone, Houghton Mifflin; and Mr. David Amerman, Prentice Hall.

And I think Senator Williams will introduce Mr. Amerman.

Senator WILLIAMS. Well, I am very anxious to.

I can only be here briefly, but I want to get to the substance of this.

Mr. Chairman, I am pleased to be able to introduce today a witness from New Jersey whose invitation to testify before this subcommittee regarding basic skills continues the tradition of excellence which has characterized this series of hearings.

Mr. David Amerman is president of the College Book Division of Prentice Hall, Inc., a publisher located in Englewood Cliffs, N.J., and known worldwide for books covering the spectrum of human endeavor.

He is not only an administrative officer of this fine firm, but Mr. Amerman is also chairman of the College Division of the Association of American Publishers. He is therefore in the perfect position to represent the views and experiences of college publishers to this subcommittee as it explores the relationship of learning materials to improvement of basic skills.

Mr. Chairman, you may be interested to know that Mr. Amerman has been with Prentice Hall, whose largest division is the College Book Division, since 1953. During his 26 years with the company, Mr. Amerman has experienced all phases of the college division's work, beginning as a sales representative not long out of Hamilton College. He served as a district manager later on and worked his way up to the division's presidency a few years ago. He now presides over an operation staffed by 550 people.

Senator Eagleton will recall that just this past Friday we were successful in uniting against some attempts to reduce Federal expenditures for the basic skills program, title II, of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, which we newly enacted last fall. I am very pleased that the Federal expenditure for this program has been sustained and I know that Mr. Amerman's testimony, which I have had the pleasure to read, will assist the subcommittee to carry forward the initiatives we now are able to implement.

Mr. Amerman, it is a pleasure to have you with us today.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Senator.

Gentlemen, you may proceed. I do not know who is going to make the initial statement.

STATEMENTS OF LAWRENCE JACKEL, PRESIDENT, LITTON EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS, INC., NEW YORK, NY.; RICHARD GLADSTONE, SENIOR VICE PRESIDENT, HOUGHTON-MIFFLIN CO., BOSTON, MASS.; AND DAVID AMERMAN, PRESIDENT, COLLEGE DIVISION OF PRENTICE HALL, INC., ENGLEWOOD CLIFFS, N.J., ON BEHALF OF THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN PUBLISHERS, INC.; ACCOMPANIED BY ROY MILLENSON, WASHINGTON OFFICE, A PANEL

Mr. JACKEL. I will, Senator.

My name is Lawrence Jackel. I am president of Litton Educational Publications, Inc., New York, N.Y., and appear today to

testify on behalf of the school division of the Association of American Publishers. Also testifying for the school division will be Richard Gladstone, senior vice president of the Houghton-Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass. I will deal with the elementary-secondary textbook publishing generally and include our recommendations to the committee. Mr. Gladstone will speak to specific questions on school publishing which have been raised here.

Testifying for AAP's college division will be David Amerman, its chairman, who is president of the College Division of Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J. We are accompanied by Roy Millenson of AAP's Washington office.

Unless we can solve the problems in education, as a Nation we may not be able to solve any of the other crises. We must be able to educate our future leaders on how to think so they can solve the problems, to provide the resources for them, for providing of resources for effective learning to take place.

If this country is to maintain its leadership in the world, significant improvement in the educational system will have to take place.

During the previous testimony, while it is encouraging that someone is working on those problems, it seems to me to be a shame that we now have to teach the six R's—that is, remedial writing, remedial reading, and remedial arithmetic. And we should teach the three R's in the first place.

The 56 publishing houses in AAP's school division are responsible for 80 percent of the instructional materials used in the Nation's classrooms. No one of these houses has more than 15 percent of the elementary-secondary market and in no major single course of study does any publisher have a majority of the market.

To give some idea of the order of magnitude of the elementary-secondary textbook publishing industry, all elementary-secondary text sales totaled $823.5 million in 1978. Total school textbook sales of all publishing houses were less than the individual sales of each of the largest 290 industrial corporations in the United States, as listed in Fortune magazine. To put it another way, elementary-secondary textbook sales by all publishing houses combined were only a little less than a third of the $2,259,633,000 1978 sales of a single brewery, Anheuser-Busch.

The history of the textbook in American schools goes back three centuries. Perhaps the most famous of American texts was the McGuffey Reader, first published in 1836, and widely used until the 1920's. That book has sold more than 122 million copies, and still is being used in schools.

I cite the McGuffey Reader and the fact that it is still used to illustrate the scope of textbooks available. They run the gamut from the traditional to the avant-garde. Some 25 publishers alone produce basal readers, employing every known method of teaching reading.

In a recent national survey of 24,000 teachers conducted by Educational Products Information Exchange (EPIE) a few years ago revealed that instructional materials structure 95 percent of classroom time and 90 percent of homework time is taken up with the textbook.

On the other hand, in terms of expenditures, less than 1 percent of local school spending—sixty-four one-hundredths of 1 percent, to be more precise—is for the purchase of books. In some States—Rhode Island, for example, it is slightly less than the average; in others—Missouri, for example, it is slightly more.

The creation of an elementary or secondary school textbook is a complex process taking 3 to 5 years, and between $4 to $8 million. It begins with an analysis of the instructional problems encountered by the schools. This analysis is undertaken through consultations with local and State school officials, including classroom teachers. Following this, a team of teachers and editors proceeds to define the approach of the text, identifying and sequencing its contents, determining the level of difficulty and outlining it. The author, or authors, then proceed to the writing of the text, drafting their writing to insure proper grade placement, the effective conveying of information, avoidance of bias, and the myriad of other requirements for an acceptable textbook. Following this, it is reviewed by editors who are themselves experienced educators.

Developed along with the written contents are illustrations, diagrams and charts, and layouts, all of which must be coordinated with the text. Also especially important is the development of study guides, questions and answers, supplemental reading lists and suggested learning activities; each of these is an integral part of the total curriculum.

Because of the cost of development, it often takes several years for a publisher to recoup his investment. A poorly conceived and written text will not make the grade, resulting in a financial loss to the publisher. On the other hand, every publisher dreams that his next effort will become a new McGuffey's Reader, selling copies generation, generation after generation.

There are many problems publishers have to deal with. I would like to deal with six of them.

The first is physical specifications. While the overwhelming number of publishers neither print nor bind books, publishers contract this out, they do, of course, bear a responsibility for the physical condition of the books furnished. School books must be constructed to last; they must be able to stand heavy use nd abuse. American texts stand first in the world in this regard, but in general usually last no more than 4 to 5 years.

Second, lower price clauses. Most jurisdictions specify that a publisher must provide texts at a price no higher than those by which the books are sold elsewhere in the United States. Inflation has resulted in some easing of the interpretation of this provision, which is known in the trade as the "most favored nations clause."

Three, adoption periods and price maintenance. Adoption periods range from 4 to 8 years. Publishers are required to have the book available in whatever quantities the jurisdiction may desire for the entire adoption period at the price at which the book was sold in the first year of its adoption. The realities of inflation have resulted in some relaxation of this price maintenance requirement in some States. Unfortunately for publishers, this flexibility is not the practice in a majority of the States.

Four, textbook selection process. Means of textbook selection vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. In adoption States, the selec-

tion is made by a central authority; in "open territory" States, textbook selection is left to the discretion of the local school districts. In Missouri, for example, the State department of elementary and secondary education does, however, distribute to the 556 Missouri school districts "Recommended Guidelines for Textbook Selection Policies and Procedures." We should like to furnish the committee a copy of those guidelines which are currently in use, and which are dated August 1975.

[The following was received for the record:]

RECOMMENDED GUIDELINES

FOR

TEXTBOOK SELECTION

POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

August 1975

Department of Elementary and Secondary Education

Arthur L. Mallory

Commissioner of Education

ANY PART OR ALL OF THIS PUBLICATION MAY BE REPRODUCED BY SCHOOL OFFICIALS FOR USE IN THEIR DISTRICT.

FOREWORD

In the process of providing quality education for the pupils of a school district, the selection of appropriate learning resources is a major responsibility. Although many learning resources are used, textbooks occupy a prominent place in the teaching-learning process of most classrooms.

The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education upholds the concept that textbooks are selected to enable teachers and pupils to attain educational goals and objectives which should have been cooperatively developed by educators and parents and approved by the local board of education. The Department also believes that the selection of textbooks should be made at the local district level.

Numerous requests for assistance in developing policies and procedures to be used in textbook selection have been received by our staff. To assist local districts in the selection process, a special committee has prepared "Recommended Guidelines for Textbook Selection Policies and Procedures." I hope that these suggestions will be of assistance to school officials in fulfilling their responsibilities for selecting quality textbooks. Of course, our ultimate goal is to provide the public schoolchildren and youth of Missouri with educational resources and services that will allow them to function efficiently as responsible citizens in a democratic society.

Arthur L. Mallory
Commissioner

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Textbook Selection Policies and Procedures

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POLICY DEVELOPMENT

Textbook selection is a major responsibility of the local school district. The Statutes of Missouri assign the control and administration of all public school textbooks to the local boards of education (Sec. 171.011; 170.051). Therefore, the local board of education has the responsibility for approving policies for the selection of textbooks to be purchased and used in the schools of its district. In order to assist local school officials in this task, the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education offers these suggestions that may be helpful in developing local textbook selection policies and procedures.

The local board policies should provide directions for involvement of administrators, teachers, and others in textbook selection procedures. If the procedure for textbook selection includes a review by parents, the parents must be provided with the goals and objectives in the instructional areas affected by the textbook(s) to be selected. School board members may also serve on the committee with parents. Although parents should not be expected to determine such items as the readability level of books or their specific contributions to the instructional goals and objectives, they can provide input about mores and priorities of the community that should be considered in textbook selection.

ITEMS FOR CONSIDERATION IN DEVELOPING POLICIES

1. Determine who will be involved in the textbook selection process.

   a. Board of Education

   b. Administrators

   c. Supervisors and/or department chairman

   d. Teachers

   e. Parents

   f. Students.

2. Determine the specific role of those involved in the textbook selection process.

   (A sample role and time schedule for textbook selection is provided on pages 9 and 10).

3. Determine clearly who has final approval for textbook adoptions.

   a. Will the textbook evaluation committee recommend one selection to the final approval authority or is more than one recommendation to be made?

b. Will the teaching staff affected vote on the textbook to be recommended?

c. Who reviews the final recommendations and makes the final decision?

4. Determine budget provisions and purchasing schedules.

a. Building or district-wide adoptions

b. Single or multiple references

c. Consumable or nonconsumable textbooks

d. Normal replacement time schedule.

5. Determine items the board wants to require in the selection process.

a. Review of current educational goals and objectives of the school district.

b. Review of state laws, if any, regarding curriculum requirements in the area of selection.

NOTE: Additional items which may be included are given in the following section.

SUGGESTED ITEMS TO BE CONSIDERED BY THOSE INVOLVED IN THE SELECTION PROCESS

Those considering textbooks for a given class, grade level, subject, or school may wish to develop a rating sheet if the district has not developed one. (Sample rating sheets are included after this section.) The following are items that may be considered when developing textbook rating sheets. (The items are not necessarily listed in order of importance.)

I. CONTENT

A. Does the content of the textbook relate positively to current goals and objectives? For example:

1. Educational goals and educational objectives for the State of Missouri?

2. Philosophy, goals, and objectives of education adopted by the local board of education?

3. Goals and objectives of the administrative unit?

4. Inter- and intra-departmental goals and objectives?

5. Behavioral goals for the class(es) or grade level(s)? (Affective and psychomotor as well as cognitive goals)

6. Goals for individual learners?

B. Does the content in the textbook follow a defensible sequence of ideas, concepts, and points of view:

1. With other materials to be used for the subject and/or the class and other grades?

2. Such that the sequence can be adapted to the learners' needs and/or portions omitted or substituted without detriment to the usefulness of the textbook?

C. For students, is the content in the textbook:

1. Of suitable maturity level?

2. Of sufficient interest for students?

D. Does the content:

1. Contain language that would be offensive to a significant proportion of patrons in the community?

2. Maintain respect for the rights, values, and generally approved practices of ethnic, religious, and racial groups?

3. Present the history, heritage, and ideals of the United States in an accurate, undistorted, and realistic manner?

4. Present rights and responsibilities of citizenship in a democratic society so that students can identify positively with them?

5. Help pupils develop desirable attitudes, values, and behavior patterns?

6. Assist pupils in learning to make intelligent judgments in daily life?

7. Present material in a desirable manner without objectionable personal opinion, dogma, and editorializing?

E. Is the material current and accurate? For example:

1. Copyrighted or revised within three years?

2. Documented where appropriate?

F. Is the material presented in a way to encourage further study and critical thinking? For example:

1. Appropriate teacher-centered or teacher-directed methods?

2. Appropriate pupil-centered methods that elicit active participation of students?

G. Does the material consider:

1. Learning principles of

a. readiness?

b. review and reinforcement?

c. transfer of learning?

2. Correlation with other subject matter and activities?

3. Applications of the material to everyday life?

H. If controversial issues are considered, how adequately are representative points of view included and treated objectively?

I. Readability

1. Is the readability level of the book appropriate for pupils reading it?

2. Does the book:

a. make adequate provision for clarification of technical terms?

b. introduce new vocabulary in appropriate amounts and in meaningful context?

3. Is the readability level of the book compatible with books in other classes being used by pupils?

II. FORMAT AND PHYSICAL FEATURES

A. Do the illustrations make a valuable contribution to the book?

1. In clarifying and/or amplifying the text?

2. Current or appropriate?

3. Of appropriate size?

4. Appealing to the maturity level of pupils?

5. Well captioned?

6. In good taste?

7. Accurate?

B. Do legends accompanying illustrations supplement text material?

C. Is the size and clarity of print suitable for the subject and age level for which it is intended?

D. Is the cover durable enough to permit pupil usage of the book for purposes intended?

III. SUPPLEMENTARY SERVICES AND TEACHING AIDS

A. Does the publisher provide useful services to assist in implementing the textbook? For example:

46-431 O - 80 - 42

1. Consultative services?

2. In-service training for teachers?

3. Workshops for parent groups?

B. Are teachers' guides well-organized, usable, and immediately available?

C. Are manuals provided gratis or is there a charge for them?

D. Are supplementary materials provided or identified?

E. Are supplementary activities for pupils with varying interests and ability levels suggested?

F. Evaluation of pupil learning

1. Are there recommended evaluation procedures for teachers or students within the materials to assess pupil learning? Such as:

a. evaluation of affective and psychomotor as well as cognitive learning skills?

b. evaluation procedures available for pupils with different needs and abilities?

2. Are the evaluation procedures compatible with the goals and objectives formulated for the school, class, or subject?

a. diagnostic instruments to discover pupil strengths and weaknesses?

b. provision for some immediate feedback on progress for the pupil?

SAMPLE

ROLE AND TIME SCHEDULE FOR TEXTBOOK SELECTION

Directions: Check the column to assign responsibilities on the local level. (Write in Names)

Board of Educ.	Supt. of Schools	Dist. Adm. Staff	Bldg. Adm. Staff	Coordinators, Consultants or Supervisors	Dept. or Grade Level Chairmen	Teachers	Students	Community	Role	Time Schedule
									Review and/or revise instructional goals and objectives for the course or grade level for which the textbook is to be used.	
									Determine budget considerations for textbook adoptions.	
									Request the department or grade level to review and revise (if needed) the description for each course or subject area for which textbooks are to be selected.	
									Appoint textbook selection committee.	
									(1) Submit instructional goals and objectives and (2) course or subject area descriptions, to textbook representatives and request examination copies of textbooks that would meet the descriptions.	

SAMPLE

ROLE AND TIME SCHEDULE FOR TEXTBOOK SELECTION (cont'd)

Directions: Check the column to assign responsibilities on the local level. (Write in Names)

Board of Educ.	Supt. of Schools	Dist. Adm. Staff	Bldg. Adm. Staff	Coordinators, Consultants or Supervisors	Dept. or Grade Level Chairmen	Teachers	Students	Community	Role	Time Schedule
									Construct and/or use an evaluation sheet appropriate for evaluating textbooks in the subject area or grade level.	
									Examine textbooks and evaluate each by standards on the evaluation sheet.	
									Tabulate results of the evaluation and present proposed selection(s) for the final approval process approved by the Board of Education.	
									Final selection process which may include a review by district personnel or special committees in accordance with board policy.	
									Notify textbook representatives of the school's adoptions and suggest times for them to retrieve examination copies submitted. Arrange in-service workshops for teachers with representatives of the company supplying the textbook to assist in the implementation of the textbook.	

SAMPLE REVIEW FORM

FOR TEXTBOOK COMMITTEE MEMBERS*

A. Did you read the entire book? _____

If not, what parts did you read? _____

_____

B. In your opinion, will the material in this textbook assist teachers and pupils in attaining the goals and objectives established for the class or grade indicated? _____

If not, comment _____

_____

C. If you have objections to this material, cite specific pages, and chapters.

_____

_____

D. In place of the objectionable material, what selections or sources do you recommend that would be more suitable for use in attaining the stated goals and objectives? _____

_____

E. Is this the best material, to your knowledge, available to use in attaining the goals and objectives? _____

If not, please suggest other materials. _____

_____

_____ _____

NAME DATE

*Each committee member should complete this form and attach it to the textbook rating sheet completed by the member.

SAMPLE #1
RATING SHEET FOR TEXTBOOK

Name of Book _____ Author _____

Publisher _____ Date of Publication _____ Price _____

Name of person making Evaluation _____

I. ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT

A. Fits our curriculum needs
B. Adapted to specific needs of students
C. Quality of content
D. Adequate coverage of material
E. Suitability to maturity level and reading level
F. Vocabulary level
G. Not enough or too much stress on detail
H. Teaching of values
I. Interest level
J. Correct standards and ideals in use of English
K. Method of presentation
L. Up to date - suggested copyright 1964 or later
M. Use of sequential development
N. Inclusion of chapter summaries
O. Adaptable to time limit of course

II. PHYSICAL FEATURES

A. Attractiveness
B. Illustrations
C. Dimensions of book
D. Durability of book
E. Size and style of type
F. Arrangement of page

III. GENERAL

A. Authors

1. Experience with this age group
2. Education
3. Training

IV. TEACHING AIDS

A. Suitable aids to learning (maps, pictures, charts)
B. Suitable helps and aids to instruction
C. Suitable end of chapter activities
D. Suitable testing materials
E. Index (quality and usefulness)
F. Table of Contents
G. References and Bibliography
H. Glossary
I. Appendix
J. Teacher's Edition
1. Background Information
2. List of activities to lead student beyond textbook
3. Concepts and generalizations of units clearly stated
4. Suggestions for methods of motivation

COMMENTS:
List special features of the book you liked and/or objectionable features which might prohibit adoption of this book.

_____

_____

_____

SAMPLE #2
RATING SHEET FOR TEXTBOOK

Name of Book _____ Author _____

Publisher _____ Date of Publication _____ Price _____

Name of person making Evaluation _____ Total points awarded _____

I. ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT Maximum credit - 60 points
Examiner's credit - _____

A. Fits our curriculum needs
B. Adapted to specific needs of students
C. Quality of content
D. Adequate coverage of material
E. Suitability to maturity level and reading level
F. Vocabulary Level
G. Not enough or too much stress on detail
H. Teaching of values
I. Interest level
J. Correct standards and ideals in use of English
K. Method of presentation
L. Up to date - suggested copyright 1964 or later
M. Use of sequential development
N. Inclusion of chapter summaries
O. Adaptable to time limit of course

II. PHYSICAL FEATURES Maximum credit - 10 points
Examiner's credit - _____

A. Attractiveness
B. Illustrations
C. Dimensions of book
D. Durability of book
E. Size and style of type
F. Arrangement of page

III. GENERAL Maximum credit - 10 points
Examiner's credit - _____

A. Authors
1. Experience with this age group
2. Education
3. Training

IV. TEACHING AIDS Maximum credit - 20 points
Examiner's credit - _____

A. Suitable aids to learning (maps, pictures, charts)
B. Suitable helps and aids to instruction
C. Suitable end of chapter activities
D. Suitable testing materials
E. Index (quality and usefulness)
F. Table of Contents
G. References and Bibliography
H. Glossary
I. Appendix
J. Teacher's Edition
1. Background Information
2. List of activities to lead student beyond textbook
3. Concepts and generalizations of units clearly stated
4. Suggestions for methods of motivation

COMMENTS:
List special features of the book you liked and/or objectionable features which might prohibit adoption of this book.

_____

_____

_____

SAMPLE #3
RATING SHEET FOR TEXTBOOK

Title of Book_____ Author_____ Course_____

Publisher_____ Copyright_____ Price_____ Circle One Paper or Hard Back

	RATING		
	Excellent	Adequate	Poor
I. Organization and Content			
A. Suitable for our curriculum needs			
B. Adapted to specific needs of students			
C. Up-to-date material			
D. Quality of content			
E. Use of sequential development			
F. Illustrated examples or sample problems			
G. In class activities			
H. Suitability to maturity and reading level			
II. Physical Characteristics			
A. Attractiveness			
B. Illustrations			
C. Quality of material used			
D. Size and style of type			
E. General format			
III. General			
A. Authors			
1. Education and training			
2. Experience with this age group			
IV. Teaching Aids			
A. Table of contents			
B. Index (quality and usefulness)			
C. Suitable end-of-chapter activities			
D. Suitable organizational helps and aids to instructor (Tests, lab book, workbook, audio-visual aids, etc.)			
E. Glossary			

Comments:

List any features you especially like and/or objectionable feature which might prohibit adoption_____

Name of Evaluator:_____

Rating total of 20 questions | Excellent | Adequate | Poor |

SAMPLE #4
RATING SHEET FOR TEXTBOOK

NAME OF BOOK _____

AUTHOR _____

PUBLISHER _____

DATE OF PUBLICATION _____

PRICE _____

	RATING		
	Excellent	Average	Poor
I. ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT:			
A. Fits our curriculum needs.			
B. Will aid inquiry method of teachers.			
C. Enhances conceptual development.			
D. Relation of vocabulary level to students.			
E. Relation of interest level to students.			
F. Up to date.			
G. In-depth development.			
II. PHYSICAL FEATURES:			
A. Attractiveness.			
B. Illustrations.			
C. Durability.			
D. Size and style of type.			
III. GENERAL:			
A. Authors.			
1. Experience with this age group.			
2. Education and training.			
IV. TEACHING AIDS:			
A. Background information.			
B. List of activities to lead student beyond material.			
C. Concepts and generalizations of units clearly stated.			
D. Suggestion for methods of motivation.			
E. List of Audio-Visuals.			

V. What units in the course does this book develop the best?

_____

_____

_____

RATED BY: _____

EXCELLENT	AVERAGE	POOR

SAMPLE #5
RATING SHEET FOR TEXTBOOK

Name of Book_____ Publisher_____

Author_____ Date of Publication_____

Price_____ Name of Person Making Evaluation_____

I. Organization and Content — Maximum credit - 30 points

A. Fits our curriculum needs
B. Adapted to specific needs of our students
C. Suitable to maturity level
D. Sequential development within book
E. Sequential development into next level
F. Dialogs - suitable, realistic, native, cultural
G. Grammar - adequate, coverage, structural, inductive
H. Pattern drills - sufficient for adaptation and reinforcement
I. Vocabulary - repeated, useful, practical, suitable to age
J. Suitability for laboratory use
K. Interest level
L. Not enough or too much stress on detail
M. Cultural material
N. Format - index, table of contents, references, etc.

_____ Points given by examiner

II. Physical Features — Maximum credit - 5 points

A. Attractiveness to students
B. Durability

_____ Points given by examiner

III. Learning/Teaching Aid — Maximum credit - 5 points

A. Suitable testing materials
B. Teacher's edition

1. Background information
2. Activities to lead student beyond textbook
3. Concepts and generalizations of units clearly stated
4. Suggestions for methods of motivation.

_____ Points given by examiner

IV. Audio-Visual Aids — Maximum credit - 10 points

A. Tapes
B. Records
C. Filmstrips
D. Movies
E. Maps
F. Posters

_____ Points given by examiner

Comments: List special features you liked and/or objectionable features that might encourage or prohibit adoption of this book.

_____
_____
_____

Attachment A

SUMMARY OF STATE ADOPTION CONTRACT PROVISIONS

	PRICE ESCALATION	BID PRICE RESTRICTION	CONTRACT EXTENSION	CONTRACT SUBSTITUTION	PERFORMANCE BOND	TIME PERIOD BETWEEN CALL AND OFFICIAL SAMPLES	DEPOSITORY REQUIREMENTS	FORMS	OFFICIAL SAMPLES T. F. AND/OR F. F.	PAPERBACK [illegible]
ALABAMA (6 years)	No Provision	Bid Price cannot exceed price in which books are sold elsewhere under contract, entered after January 1 of contract year	Per each period of years on the State Board deems appropriate	Publisher may be made in the third year of contract at the then current subject price. State has option of refusing substitution.	Continuous Bond (to begin in 1973) (Bid Tab requirement)	2 months	None Required	A - T-1 Registration of Page B - Form B C - Bid (T-3) 1 page D - Contract	2 P. F. 1 T. E. all supplementary materials bid	Yes
ARIZONA (5 years)	Permitted after first year of adoption and each subsequent year	Bid price is the lowest price the textbook are sold elsewhere in the U. S.	Conditioned upon re-approval of the Board. To be given 45 days preceding July 1 of the year contract is to be renewed	At the option of the State Board of Education at the lowest price each edition is sold elsewhere	5%, one per contract	5 months	None Required	A - Certificates of Availability B - Bid (1 copy) C - Contract D - Bond	1 each P. F., and T. F. and all supplementary materials	Yes
ARKANSAS (5 years)	State Board of Education may grant a price increase after second year of contract provided the Consumer Price Index has increased by 10% and the price is no higher than is received for it in any other state	Publishers will bid current wholesale price at the time of filing the bid	No less than one nor more than two years at the contract price	Allow but do not require substitution. Must subscribe at the contract price	None Required	5-6 months	Publishers must maintain a depository to control Arkansas and bid texts f. o. b. Little Rock	A - Bid and Contract B - Bargain prices were established C - Registration of Page D - List of all existing adoptions of texts bid E - Form B F - Contract	1 each P. F., and T. F. and all supplementary materials	Yes
CALIFORNIA (6 years)	Can request adjustment for re-adoption after six years at declined prices	Must be not the minimum of the lowest price offered for sale in and sale to any state of a bond deposit in the U. S.	No Provision	No Provision	None Required	5-6 months	Must maintain an office and depository in California or have an independent resident depository in California	A - List of Materials Submitted B - Letter Verification C - Legal Compliance D - Form B E - Contract	1 each P. F., and T. F. 1 copy - supplemental materials	Yes
FLORIDA (6 years)	Can increase price at the end of the third year of contract not to exceed 10% of the original price	Contract price on bid. Can be publisher's price effective two months date of contract	May be extended to enough exceed for not more than two years	Can substitute at the contract price providing new edition can be used in the classrooms with older editions	In such amount as the Department of Education deems adequate	5 months	Must maintain or contract with a depository in the state	A - Letter of Intent B - Registration of Page C - Letter Verification D - Form A E - Form B F - Bid G - Contract H - Bond	1 each P. F., and T. F. and all supplementary materials	Yes
GEORGIA (5 years)	No Provision	May submit bids in the same to five years. Nothing may adjust in the price stipulated in the bid. Not to exceed price of 5 % of adoption year	Up to two years	At the option of the Board. May be up the original bid price	None Required	3 months	Must have a quantity of books in order depository in the greater metropolitan Atlanta area	A - Letter of Intent B - Registration of Page C - List of Texts Submitted D - Bid (T-3) E - Contract * * The State reserves the Bid in the publisher market	2 copies of each text bid	Binding and Materials [illegible]
IDAHO (5 years)	No Provision	No Provision	No Provision	Publisher may request approval within five two years of contract	2%, one per contract	7 months	Must maintain books at Caldwell Printing, Ltd., Caldwell, Idaho	A - List of Books Submitted B - Bid C - Contract D - Bond	1 each P. F., and T. F. and all supplementary materials	Bids adopted paperbacks
NEBRASKA (5 years)	No Provision	Contract Price on Bid	No Provision	Can substitute at the contract price. Must be compatible with older edition	5%, one per contract	4 months	None Required	A - Bid B - Contract C - Bond	1 each P. F., only	Yes

NORTH CAROLINA (4 years)	No Provision	Bid price to the established price for the following year (same general options chosen previously conditions)	Up to one cents on an annual basis a renegotiated price, not to exceed the year's net wholesale price	Can substitute if compatible with older edition and at the contract price	$1,000 for each term adopted up to and not exceeding $5,000	3 - 4 months	Must establish and maintain a depository in the state	A - Order Form B - Registration of Maps C - Complete list of titles offered D - Form G E - Bid F - Contract G - Bond	1 copy of each item bid	Yes
TENNESSEE (5 years)	No Provision	Bid price or price for text same or used during the year for five years after July 1 of purchase year	No Provision	Can substitute if compatible with older edition and at the contract price	Not to exceed $5,000 per contract	3 months	Must maintain a depository in Nashville, Tennessee	A - Request for Forms B - Registration of Maps C - Form H and H1 D - Bid E - List of books submitted arranged under subject headings F - Auxiliary List - Form J G - Check Bond to accompany Bid H - Contract I - Bond	1 copy of each item bid	Yes
* Proposal to eliminate lump price competition was not implemented.										
TEXAS (3-5 years)	No Provision (will re-open at end of the contract period at current prices)	Bidder agrees to furnish books listed in contract at prices not to exceed lowest price granted in any year	Re-adopted (3-5 years) at the then current price	Will substitute books additional to contract or similar to contract to books already adopted	$5,000 per title adopted	5 months	Must maintain within the state a depository where each of goods shall be kept	A - Statement of intent B - Price Data Sheets C - Form F D - Bid E - Affidavits (3) F - Permit To Do Business in the state G - Treasurer's Receipt for $5. Deposit H - Contract I - Bond	4 copy of P. F. bid (5 contract price data sheets; 1 contains Form H plus F. F.)	Yes
UTAH (5 years)	Prices may be renegotiated annually, not to exceed publisher's lowest price, and not to exceed 10% increase, and to bring an bid price of not less than one year	The Bid price is the net contract price of which publications may be obtained during the adoption period	No Provision	Must have approval from Superintendent of Public Instruction before sold in the state	Publishers can request a Continuation Bond with a Certified Statement from the Bonding Company	2 - 4 months	No specific designation. Up to publisher and local vending institutions	A - List of Items Submitted B - Bid C - Contract D - Bond or Continuation Bond	1 copies of each item bid	Yes
VIRGINIA (5 years)	Allowed after second and fourth year of contract (limited to 5% in 1977)	Bid price shall be renegotiated annual price as of bid deadline	Does does not extend but allows local districts to continue on adoption for a year or two after expiration if arrangements can be worked out with publishers.* * AAP Summary of Committee on Adoption Practices meeting with the Virginia State Department of Education - 1/20/76	Can substitute if compatible with older edition and at the contract price	$1,000 - $20,000 per contract	5 months	None Required	A - Letter of Intent including list of all materials being submitted B - Registration of Maps C - Sample Labels on records and tapes of series D - Catalog E - List in triplicate of titles being sampled F - Bid G - Contract H - Bond I - Price Adjustment Request	1 copy of each item bid	No
WEST VIRGINIA (5 years)	No Provision	The publisher will furnish the books for the period of adoption at the lowest wholesale price contained in the Bid	No Provision	The State Board of Education may approve revised editions of an adopted book or series	$2,000 - $5,000 per contract	5 months	None Required	A - Letter of Intent B - Bid C - Contract D - Bond E - Corporate Acknowledgment F - Partn. Acknowledgment	1 each P. F. only	Yes

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March, 1979

ALBANY (3 years)	No Provision	Shall not bid and enter into a contract for books at a higher price than is being bid for the same adoption period elsewhere	No mutual agreement contracts may be extended	Not permitted in the last year of contract. Must be compatible with older edition. Must be at the contract price	Continuation Bond (TC 000 - $10,000 - bond for renewed every five years)	2 months	None Required	A - Bureau Form for bid instructions B - Requisition of Bids (TC - 1) C - Texts Offered and Filing Fee (TC - 2) D - Any revision or special edition of any book, alternate name, share sold, prices, and points of difference from edition bid (TC - 3) E - Bid (TC - 4) F - Contract (TC - 5) G - Bond (TC - 7) Renewed every five years H - Form 8 and 9A	1 copy P. E. only	See [illegible] 1 and 2; Revising Texts and Prospectus of handbook [illegible]
LOUISIANA (indefinite)	No Provision	The prices of supplementary materials bid will remain at the bid prices for the life of the contract for the editions they supplement	No Provision	May be permitted at the bid price	None Required	4 weeks	Must maintain a depository within the state	A - Requests for of Bids B - Other places where texts bid are adopted with list and net prices C - Form F D - Bid E - Contract	2 each P. E. and T. F. and all supplementary materials	Yes
MISSISSIPPI (5-6 years)	No Provision	Bid prices must not be higher than the lowest price at which books are sold anywhere in the U. S. after all discounts are allowed. Proposal to stand bid date - failure for purchase in full not not implemented	At the discretion of the Board from year to year can be extended two years	No Provision, but it can be done	Continuation Bond	1 - 2 months	Shall establish a State Depository at Jackson, Mississippi	A - Requisition of Bids B - Proposal Blanks C - Bid D - Form B E - Contract F - Continuation Bond (renewed upon expiration)	1 each P. E. only	Yes
NEVADA (6 years)	No Provision	No Provision	No Provision	Revisions to be offered at the contract price	None Required	Not Applicable	None Required	A - Bid and Contract Combined	1 each of adopted items	Yes
NEW MEXICO (6 years)	Can request price increase after three years of contract if costs have increased more than 15	Bid prices not to exceed lowest price at which materials are being sold anywhere in the U. S.	By mutual consent, contract can be extended for 1-4 years	Revisions may be submitted at contract price and actual increase in production costs	Bonded Bond (renewed each year)	4 months	Must keep stock at Publisher's New Mexico distribution point	A - Proposal B - Bid C - Official Sample Label D - Contract E - Bonded Bond (renewed each year)	1 each of adopted items	Yes
NORTH CAROLINA (3 years)	No Provision	Bid price must be current price per current catalog	Up to ten years unless either party shall appeal prior to January 31 of either year	Must be offered by publisher. Submission to the opinion of the State Board at the contract price	Not to exceed 10% of total sales as estimated by the State Board	6 months	Distribute books from a state agency	A - Letter of intent and Checklist B - Requisition of New Bids C - Official Sample Label D - Form B E - Bid F - Contract G - Bond Electronic Filing Fee	2 copies of each item bid	Permissible: [illegible] to subject
OKLAHOMA (6 years)	No Provision	Bid price must be lower price sold or offered between June 1 and December 1 of year bid is submitted	No Provision	Later editions accepted in lieu of older edition at the then current price at the beginning of the [illegible]	$7,000 - $10,000 per contract	3 months	Must have books at Oklahoma Depository no later than June 1 of year of adoption	A - Letter of intent B - Bid C - Ownership and Sample Form D - Price Affidavit Form E - Affidavit as to gifts F - Receipt for Deposit Form G - Contract H - Bond	1 copy of each item bid and one T. F. or gift copy	Yes
OREGON (6 years)	After ten years of contract, price may be raised each of four succeeding years to no more than 17 each year provided price is no higher than sold elsewhere in the U. S. * [illegible]	The Bid - lowest price requirement & discount from list price. No special discount is allowed at any other point in the U. S.	No Provision	Subsequent to any biennial adoption, may approve a request to substitute a more recent edition of an adopted text	$5,000 per contract	6 months	Must maintain a depository in the state	A - Information Fee Form B - Bid C - Contract D - Bond	1 each P. E., and T. F. and all supplementary materials	Yes - [illegible]

Mr. JACKEL. The overwhelming majority of school publishing representatives in States and communities are former educators. In presenting books for consideration to the State or local school authorities, publishers are required to furnish samples of both the student text and the teacher edition. One journalist writing on the textbook publishing scene noted that "unlike other businesses, textbook publishers give away 10 to 15 percent of their product to potential customers" and added that "the competition is intense."

This committee may be interested in knowing that the principal reason for the growth of sampling requirements has been turning the final choice of a textbook over to a vote by teachers. And for teachers to choose intelligently, it is imperative that they have an opportunity to examine the books, hence the growth in sampling. Also, an increasing number of jurisdictions are including parents in the selection process.

Fifth, contemporary concerns. In recent years, militancy for causes has been as pronounced as at any time in our history. In textbook selection this is reflected by the number of individuals and groups wanting to modify the textbook representation of various aspects of our society. Such issues as race, sex, ethnicity, age, physical handicap, religious beliefs—especially regarding evolution—antiradicalism and environment become key—and often highly emotional—factors in the textbook selection process.

Our association has long been concerned about this, not only because of a logical concern about censorship, but also with respect to a concern as to how school publishers might best meet the very legitimate sensitivity to textbooks which do meet fair criteria. We include in our testimony, attachment B, our "1976 Statement on Bias-free Materials." Supplementing this many individual publishing houses have produced style manuals which go into much greater detail.

[The following was received for the record:]

Attachment B

School Division
Association of American Publishers

Statement on Bias-free Materials

Throughout the last decade there has been an increased sensitivity to the role textbooks and other materials play in education. Groups of concerned parents, teachers, and community leaders have called upon publishers to provide materials that meet criteria of fair and equal representation for women and minorities. Many individual publishers have responded by issuing guidelines pertaining to the treatment of people in educational materials.

The Association of American Publishers is committed to the development of instructional programs that reflect our diversified society, portraying individuals of all backgrounds with dignity and worth. The statement that follows is an attempt to present some of the general principles formulated by individual publishers as representative of the effort that the educational publishing industry as a whole is putting forth to eliminate bias and to further the cause of fair and equitable treatment for all people.

America has been from its beginning a nation of tremendous diversity. It has found in that diversity a positive good, a vigorous rejection of complacency, a continuing source of fresh and often opposing viewpoints from which to examine its direction and goals. Freedom to publish without governmental control has long been established as a basic American freedom, and from this freedom has come the diversity of published instructional materials from which local communities may choose.

As a people, we are a conglomeration of customs, beliefs, and lifestyles, united more than anything else by our belief in the ideals on which the country was founded: Freedom, justice, dignity of the individual, equal opportunity for all. If reality has not always kept up with the ideal, as indeed it has not, the ideals have remained.

Much of the social upheaval we have seen in past years has been from people seeking not to overthrow the ideals, but to be embraced more fully by them. We are being told in no uncertain terms that equal opportunity for all must mean just that, and no less.

Education traditionally has been a major path to opportunity in America. It is not surprising, then, that many of the struggles for equal opportunity have centered on educational matters: Who shall sit in what classroom? who shall be taught by what teacher? what materials shall be taught? which shall be available for individual use? All are vital concerns of parents and educators seeking equal opportunities for America's children.

Textbooks play an important part in education, transmitting not only facts and figures, but ideas and cultural values. The words and pictures children see in

school influence the development of the attitude they carry into adult life: these words and pictures not only express ideas, but are part of the educational experience which shapes ideas.

Publishers of educational materials have a long history of being responsive to the needs of the broad base of American culture. From the beginning of the American educational system educational materials have shown high sensitivity to the predominant social values. Harris' *New England Primer* published in 1690 started with "in Adam's fall, we sinned all." They were a product of a time when educators wanted materials that combined religious and moral values with reading instruction.

In recent years, educators have emphasized the fact that all children learn at different levels and rates. Publishers met the call for individualized materials—their catalogues are now full of quality programs that offer self-directing and self-correcting instruction.

In a similar way, the publishing industry is responding today to the challenge of bias-free learning materials that reflect the contribution of all cultures and both sexes. Requests for materials that portray all our citizens in a variety of life roles are being answered—each publisher responding in its own way.

In meeting this challenge, the industry is aware that the primary function of textbooks is to deliver information to a wide audience comprising every social, economic, and political background. Because of the diversity of the audience, educational publishers recognize that there may never be a clear consensus regarding social values. They therefore try to follow a pluralistic approach rather than a particular ideology.

The call for change in educational materials is evidenced by the many guidelines from states and local school boards indicating what is considered suitable learning material for an egalitarian society. However, because of the rapidity of social change and its varied cross currents, guidelines that offer general direction and goals are preferable to those with too specific and rigid mandates.

General guidelines and recommendations, rather than firm directives, will insure that communities and states are free to choose from the full range of educational materials in the marketplace. Experience shows that no one "ideal program" has ever been written or even described. Competition among publishers will insure a full and varied response to the valid concerns of the community, without undue restrictions on freedom of expression or creativity. It is important to note that guidelines for the inclusion of imaginative literature in school programs (poetry, fiction, drama, etc.) call for somewhat different criteria than those applied to newly prepared instructional materials. Frequently reflecting the social and cultural values of past historical periods, a literary selection must generally be assessed for its overall contribution to the education of young people.

It is our experience that educational publishers are making a determined effort to produce books and learning units that represent all groups of people. They have heightened their sensitivity to the subtlety and pervasiveness of bias and stereotype. The growing consciousness of the industry is both a response to current societal concerns and an awareness of the impact of instructional programs on young people's thinking.

In evaluating learning materials for fair treatment of all, three main areas—content, illustrations, and language—require special attention. Different publishers have approached full implementation of these areas in a variety of ways and with differing degrees of specificity. We believe that basic commitment is shared by all, however, and is embodied in the individual publisher's guidelines from which the next three sections of this booklet are excerpted.

CONTENT: Individuals of all ages and ethnic groups have much to gain from the elimination of stereotypes. Bias-free educational materials more accurately represent reality, encourage tolerance for individual differences, and allow more freedom for children to discover and express their needs, interests, and abilities.

Specifically, bias-free educational materials are those that:

- represent different groups of people in varied activities and vocations, including positions of leadership, and show children aspiring to a variety of careers.
- represent fairly and accurately the historic and current achievements of people, especially women and members of minorities, and include a fair proportion of materials about, and written or executed by, women and minority people.

- use material that honestly conveys the exploitation of people and the real hardships imposed on people through such exploitation.
- depict all men and women as having the full range of human emotions and behavior, and finding for themselves attributes that lead to self-esteem and success.
- represent minority and majority groups in varied communities—urban, suburban, and rural; and all ranges of socio-economic levels.

ILLUSTRATIONS: Illustrations in educational materials, by virtue of their visual immediacy, may carry an even stronger message than the text they illustrate. Pictures may leave a lasting impression about the tone of a book; the array of illustrations in a book is a strong projection of its intent.

Specifically, bias-free illustrations should:

- reflect a fair and reasonable balance of representation with regard to race, religion, ethnic groups, age, economic levels, sex and national origin.
- provide positive role models for students of different ethnic and racial backgrounds and of both sexes.
- avoid stereotypes and caricatures of individuals and groups to offer a realistic and broad view of physical features.
- promote opportunities for placing women and minority group members in positions of prominence, leadership and centrality.

LANGUAGE: Bias-free language is language that includes all people and treats them with equal dignity and respect, whatever their race, sex, age, religion or national and ethnic origin. Bias-free language deals with people as individuals, not as members of stereotyped groups. It minimizes the cultural differences on which prejudice is often based, avoids insults and derogatory connotations, and does not trivialize or patronize, slight or slander, mock or deride whole classes of people. It is language of equal opportunity.

Specifically, bias-free language is language that:

- seeks to encompass members of both sexes by 1) avoiding the use of *man* and its derivatives to denote the average person or the human race; and 2) designating occupations by the work performed, not only by the gender of the worker.
- avoids excluding women by the use of the generic pronoun *he* by pluralizing, shifting to *one*, *you*, or *we*; rephrasing to eliminate gender pronouns altogether, or balancing *he* with *she*.
- understands generic terms such as *doctor*, *lawyer*, *teacher*, *secretary*, and *poet*, as applying to both sexes and to all races or ethnic groups.
- uses parallel language to give equal treatment to various persons and groups through the use of equivalent terms and construction. Parallel style in names means that the style employed for one individual is used for all and does not vary depending on the sex, race, or social or marital status of the persons named. Parallelism in descriptions calls for an emphasis on pertinent information and an avoidance of role stereotypes.
- reflects our cultural diversity by including a variety of ethnic names as well as the more common Anglo-Saxon ones.
- avoids loaded words, biased connotations, and prejudiced assumptions. Particularly it expresses critical or negative judgments with words not associated with a particular race or sex, as, *an evil heart rather than a black heart*, *affected mannerisms rather than effeminate mannerisms*.

Publishers continue to respond to the need for multi-ethnic nonsexist materials called for by many state and city guidelines which clearly delineate goals and needs. They urge those states and cities that wish to create guidelines to avoid regulations that may become a form of censorship. In the last analysis, publishers and the public are united in their concern and effort to provide quality learning materials for all students.

Note: This statement was developed by the Committee on Social Issues of the AAP School Division, September 1975. Additional copies are available from the AAP office, One Park Avenue, New York, New York 10016.

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Mr. JACKEL. Books that were satisfactory 5, 10 or 15 years ago no longer can meet community standards because they do not give adequate coverage to women or to minorities, or to the handicapped, or to certain viewpoints. A publisher who is not responsive to these societal changes will not have his books used in the classroom. Of course, sometimes the publisher finds himself in a no-win situation. In one elementary school a publication that mentioned human milk as food for infants became a center of controversy. Mention of mother's milk gained the approval of some womens' groups, and the condemnation of others. Finally, at the request of the adopting agency, the passage was deleted.

The March 1979 Freedom of Information Center Report No. 401, "Parents Protest Textbooks," by the Freedom of Information Center, University of Missouri School of Journalism, is a recent study of this phenomenon, which I urge the committee to read.

[The report referred to follows:]

SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI AT COLUMBIA
MARCH, 1979

FREEDOM OF INFORMATION CENTER REPORT NO. 401

PARENTS PROTEST TEXTBOOKS

This report was written by Pham Thien Hung, a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Missouri School of Journalism.

Around the 4th of July each year — as school children across the nation are celebrating Independence Day with fireworks and colorful parades down Main streets — school boards must begin the difficult task of selecting textbooks for the coming year.

And, ironically enough, while the children are celebrating the day commemorating the true spirit of the American Revolution — freedom from foreign domination (independence) and freedom from internal repression (freedom of expression) — some of these selfsame freedoms are being challenged in their academic world.

The controversy centers on the school board and its authority to choose texts for the children, as opposed to parents and militant groups who protest some of the board's choices. The controversy evolves into a whirlpool of arguments vis-a-vis "freedom" and "responsibility" that has merit on both sides.

School boards embroiled in these controversies are finding today that their task of maintaining academic freedom while protecting children is becoming increasingly complicated and challenging, involving liberal ideas and traditional, conservative values. And, besides organized pressures from citizen groups, the school board is having to deal more and more with vocal parents and, added to this group, students who demand their right to read "offensive" books — even as some board members seek to remove them (sometimes as a personal protest against the books' contents).

This report analyzes this trend during the period beginning with the bicentennial anniversary of America to the present. Table I presents the statistics.

For purposes of definition, an action will be considered bona fide censorship when a high school/elementary school textbook is actually, physically banned from classroom use (curriculum or reading list) and/or removed from the school library.

The term "textbook" will refer to any book used for educational purposes in the classroom or in the school library.

For the period under consideration — Jan. 1, 1976, to Nov. 1, 1978 — Table I lists 66 censorship incidents reported in the United States, involving about 205 textbooks and five magazines. However, Mary Woodworth, a University of Wisconsin-Madison library school professor, estimates (Milwaukee Journal, 1-16-78) that for every case of censorship reported in the media, 25 go unreported. Various reasons are advanced for this. For instance, a resolution or compromise on some point may be reached before the incident becomes worthy of publication — or weighty enough to attract the attention of the local news media.

And, as Bruce Shuman points out, librarians frequently perform a prior screening of all seemingly controversial materials before purchase and thus avoid any polemics that might arise — especially for libraries in small towns and rural areas.[1]

Even so, the cases reported in this paper indicate that censorship is very much alive all over the United States. In this analysis, Table I shows censorship state by state; the location of the censorship incident; the officials ordering the removal of the textbooks; titles and authors of censored books; and the disposition of the case — withdrawing the textbook from classroom use (or reading list) or from the library shelves and, in some cases, taking it entirely out of the school system. Table I also lists the stated reasons behind the removal or banning of the book and identifies the person or group who suggested the action.

A decision to banish a textbook can be challenged by either a librarian or a teacher — supported in many instances by his or her union or association. Protest against removal of a book may also come from students or their parents. In a few cases, the school board's decision was contested in court — such as in Chelsea, Mass. But court verdicts usually take months, even years.

A brief perusal of Table I indicates that most decisions to remove books are made by school boards.

The censorship incidents shown in Table I were first reported in a local or metropolitan paper, after which almost all were re-reported in the Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom, published by the American Library Association.

Overview

Analysis of the cases by state indicates that of the 32 states presented, Maryland leads the list with seven cases of textbook removal. The city of Rockville, Md., alone accounts for three incidents. In Howard County, Md., a Media Review Committee recommended removing 29 textbooks on drugs and sex education from the school system, one of the biggest withdrawals in the history of textbook censorship.

Illinois and New Jersey follow Maryland in the number of

Summary: Parents, teachers, students, minority groups and civil liberties organizations, in addition to school boards, have recently been expressing great concern over the educational materials used in the nation's schoolrooms. Textbook censorship activity for the period Jan. 1, 1976, to Nov. 1, 1978, is the focus of this report.

incidents of textbook censorship, each with four cases. California, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan and Pennsylvania follow with three cases each.

New York and North Carolina are next with two cases each. Of these, New York was involved not only with the removal of the largest number of books (69 in Levittown, L.I.), but also with the removal of prestigious, award-winning authors.

In Tar Heel, N.C., Hemingway's **A Farewell to Arms**, **For Whom the Bell Tolls** and **To Have and To Have Not** were banned.

In Levittown, the school board censored **Laughing Boy** by Oliver La Farge and **The Fixer** by Bernard Malamud.

Brighton, Mich., is second to none in its attempt to prevent sex education from invading its school system. It eliminated all books dealing with this subject — particularly the eight titles given in Table I.

Such an innocent-looking and apparently neutral book as **the American Heritage Dictionary** brought down the wrath of three school districts — in Anchorage, Alaska; Cedar, Ind.; and Eldon, Mo. — for its sexual definitions.

But leading the list of book "culprits" is **Go Ask Alice**. This book was written as the diary of an anonymous young woman who took drugs and eventually died from an overdose. It is banned in five locations: Warsaw, Ind.; Trenton, N.J.; Levittown and Lyons, N.Y.; and Eagle Pass, Texas.

Other textbooks that appear on more than one prohibition list include:

- **Flowers for Algernon** — Plant City, Fla.; Emporium, Pa.
- **A Hero Ain't Nothin' But a Sandwich** — Levittown, N.Y.; Chatham, Ga.
- **Our Bodies, Ourselves** — Ludlow, Mass.; Morgantown, W. Va.
- **Slaughterhouse-Five** — Goshen, Ind.; Levittown, N.Y.
- **In the Night Kitchen** — Springfield, Mo.; Northridge, Ill.
- **Naomi in the Middle** — Brockport, N.J.; Rockville, Md.

Authors

Interestingly enough, the authors of the three most banned books are either anonymous — **Go Ask Alice** — or collective — **Our Bodies, Ourselves** and the **American Heritage Dictionary**.

Authors who were singled out in particular for criticism included (Des Moines Register, 1-29-76) J. D. Salinger, **Catcher in the Rye**; John Steinbeck, **The Grapes of Wrath**; Ken Kesey, **One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest**; Alexander Solzhenitsyn, **One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich**; Kurt Vonnegut, **Slaughterhouse-Five**; and Piri Thomas, **Down These Mean Streets**.

Geographical Interpretation

Shuman in his study "A Geography of Censorship" finds 10 states having a high incidence of censorship cases (seven or more cases in the period of two years).[2] Breaking these down by regions, he finds in the Eastern Region, Maryland, New York and New Jersey; in the Northcentral Region, Michigan, Iowa, Illinois, Ohio and Wisconsin; in the Southern Region, Texas; and in the Western Region, California.

Strangely enough, while stereotypically the Southern states are considered the most conservative and intolerant, they account for only 7% percent of the censorship incidents, despite having 31 percent of the U.S. population.

Shuman generalizes from his findings that high-incidence states are likely to be populous, Eastern, urbanized and industrial. He also suggests that school libraries in large cities statistically have the greatest chance of being censored. On this point, one may speculate that the makeup of the people in these metropolitan areas has something to do with this extensive censorship. These residents, though geographically close, represent a variety of different cultures, political ideologies, religious inclinations and ways of life — hence they have different value systems.

The similarity between Shuman's findings and those in Table I seems to indicate that there is a correlation between those states and a high degree of textbook censorship. Or to say this another way: According to Shuman's findings, regional characteristics seem to be associated with book censorship.

The Dissection of Pressure

Regional pressure arising from society's mores, though pervasive, is not easy to pin down. By contrast, individual and group pressures exerted on school boards and teachers are more apparent. A quick look at Table II discloses that unlike previous periods when pressure on textbook selection and use came from organized citizen groups, during the past two-and-a-half years, pressure has come predominantly from parents, resulting in 39 out of a total of 66 cases of textbook removal — or 59 percent.

Another unlikely, yet important, source of pressure originates with school board members and school officials themselves. This emerging group accounts for 13 cases of censorship, or 20 percent.

Organized citizen groups and unknown/unspecified pressure sources are responsible for six and eight cases of Lanning, respectively. Among the organized citizen groups — Citizens Advocating Responsible Education, the Maryland Chapter of the National Organization for Women and the Florida Action Committee for Education — each successfully urged the removal of two books.

A religious denomination and an Indian tribe each compelled the removal of one textbook.

Parental protests, on the other hand, during this period were still unorganized (except for one parent organization in New York — Parents of New York-United), although on the whole they were very vocal. For the most part, however, parental efforts seemed to be isolated, scattered and unstructured.

This trend is in diametric contrast to earlier decades, as reported by Fred Thompson and Max Marshall in Freedom of Information Center reports 194, 195 and 199.[3] Previously, the effort to remove and censor textbooks was carried out actively by organized citizen groups and/or pressure groups such as the Citizens for Decent Literature and the National Organization for Decent Literature. However, in the period under study for this report, these organizations seemed to be dormant. None of the censorship cases shown in Table I was brought about by any of these once very active national groups.

Successful cases of censorship by such organizations as NOW, FACE and CARE were predominantly local achievements, not nationally coordinated efforts as in the previous period. Nor was the Indian protest of a Vermont history book a continuous effort to suppress textbooks in general, but only

an isolated incident. The Indian protest was (Kansas City Times, 9-27-78) similar to the actions of the parents of black pupils who attempted, out of pride and sensitivity, to censor Mark Twain's Huckleberry Finn in New Trier East High School, Illinois.

A new and growing concern of anti-censorship groups (the "right-to-read" activists) today is the direct involvement of school board members or school officials in protesting textbooks themselves. Their actions are responsible for about one-fifth of all the cases. As protesters, not only do they exert pressure on themselves, but as decision-makers they expurgate books from reading lists or library shelves. Their rationale is (Kansas City Times, 7-18-78) to "improve the education" offered by the school, according to one board member, William Chapel of Warsaw, Ind. Many feel, however, that a protesting board member who serves as both plaintiff and judge can neither do justice to a textbook nor serve education better, as claimed. Instead, many fear the school board member may destroy the present system of education, as charged by Edward Jenkinson, an Indiana University English professor and chairman of the Censorship Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English. According to this committee, the subversive acts of power-usurping board members present an unprecedented threat to freedom of choice of textbooks — and an ever-present headache for the right-to-read advocates.

Systematized Censorship

The professed reasons for which a textbook is censored are as varied as the censors' backgrounds. According to Ernest Lefever, personal taste and values, as well as religious beliefs and political philosophy, are (St. Louis Globe-Democrat, 5-22-78) often more controlling than any set of objective criteria.[4]

Two important influences are presently at work: (1) a pervasive mood of conservatism throughout the country, and (2) a demand for a return to the basics in teaching language, literature and mathematics.

The main themes of the censorship criteria are neither new nor original, even though most of them have been "systematized," thanks — or no thanks — to Norma and Mel Gabler of Longview, Texas, who help protesting parents to be more effective in their endeavors.[5] James Hefley also proceeds in the same direction with supportive literature.[6]

The protesters' arguments, however, are not usually as articulate or persuasive as the right-to-read proponents whose arguments center, for the most part, on the First Amendment of the Constitution (freedom of expression)[7] or John Milton's hypostasis of the free marketplace of ideas.[8]

The numerous reasons for textbook censorship, as presented in Table I, are generally defensive, repetitious, unpredictable and vague. The recurrent themes can be classified as follows:

1) Profanity, blasphemy and un-Christian thoughts.
2) Indecency: mostly related to sexual language, nude pictures, explicit sex descriptions and discussion of human sexuality.
3) Drug use (encouragement).
4) Radical liberalism.
5) Bias: sexist or racist ideas in language, racial stereotypes and derogatory descriptions of races.
6) Undermining the family, society, human relationships and traditional values through sex education, descriptions of extramarital affairs and expressions of un-American ideas.

7) No educational value, objectionable content, "trash" and "rotten literature."
8) Secular humanism and value revisionism.

These criteria seem to touch on all the principal facets of social life and morality. Parents of today do not seem to be willing to relinquish all responsibility for their children and allow the school — teachers, librarians and school boards — to be the only molders of their children's minds.

'Instant' Censorship

The Gablers in Texas go a step further by declaring that textbooks can cause irreparable damage to children.[9] They are convinced that crime, violence, venereal disease and abortion rates will continue to increase until textbooks are changed. They even go so far as to assert that since textbooks shape the nation, they can be an influential factor in determining how citizens vote, and by extension, what the nation will become and where it will go. Because of this view, the Gablers call for protestations against hundreds of textbooks and, if necessary, expurgation.

At the same time, they understand that censorship is time-consuming and hard work and that most parents do not have the time to read textbooks and complete complaint forms as insisted on by school administrators, teachers and librarians, and without which they will not make a decision.

The Texans, therefore, have devised a system of organizing thousands of textbook reviews, which they distribute through their Educational Research Analysts organization. These reviews assist the would-be censors (they call themselves book analysts) in overcoming the drudgery of censoring the contents of the books. For a small contribution, the would-be censor can receive reviews from the Gablers' nonprofit organization in Longview. These reviews point out questionable content and help parents to complete the complaint forms rather easily and painlessly.

The Gablers' reviews also help the would-be censors sound rather professional. According to Edward Jenkinson, one parent in a small Iowa town, using a Gabler review, gave a two-hour speech criticizing a textbook and sounded like an expert.[10]

The Gablers do not do all the reviews themselves but appeal to concerned parents all over the country to produce them, following a prepared outline that lists categories of objectionable content. Jenkinson cites a number of typical objections that appear in the reviews:

a) Passage is judged objectionable if it directs an attack on the Bible or Christianity, America, morality or traditional values.
b) Negative thinking exists — such as prejudice, skepticism, violence, "isms" such as communism or humanism, invasion of privacy, etc.[11]

It seems likely that anything can be classified as objectionable — by either one reviewer or another.

Jenkinson cites the instance of a Gabler review that points out objectionable entries in Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language. Most of the objections involved slang terms, but nine words (bed, fag, horny, hot, knock, queer, rubber, shack and slut) that appeared to be sex-oriented apparently were the deciding factor in rejecting this dictionary. While it seems irrational to discredit a 1,692-page

Table 1: Analysis of Textbook Censorship in the United St

State	County/ School District	Official Who Ordered Removal	Book Title	Author
Alaska	Anchorage	School Board	American Heritage Dictionary	Houghton-Mifflin Co
Arizona	Laveen	Superintendent	copies of Time, Newsweek and Glamour magazines	
Arkansas	Hot Springs	School Staffer	Run, Shelley, Run!	Gertrude Samuels
California	Oakland	Superintendent	Daddy Was A Numbers Runner	Louise Meriwether
	Chula Vista	Panel appointed by School Board	Whistle in the Graveyard: Folktales to Chill Your Bones	Maria Leach
	Oak Grove	Superintendent	Popular Songs	unknown
Florida	Plant City	Principal	Flowers for Algernon	Daniel Keys
			Manchild in the Promised Land	Claude Brown
	Jacksonville	unreported	Glowchild, a Collection of Poetry	Ruby Dee
Georgia	Chatham, Savannah	School Board President	A Hero Ain't Nothin' But a Sandwich	Alice Childress
Idaho	St. Anthony	South Fremont High School Principal	One Flow Over the Cuckoo's Nest	Ken Kesey
Illinois	New Trier, Winnetka	unreported	Huckleberry Finn	Mark Twain
	Spring Valley	School Board	Freddy's Book	John Newfeld
	Northridge	School Board Member	In the Night Kitchen	Maurice Sendak
			Book of Dogs	Sonia Lampson
	Niles	Superintendent	Father Christmas	Raymond Briggs
Indiana	Cedar	School Board	American Heritage Dictionary	Houghton-Mifflin Co.
	Goshen	School Board	The Catcher in the Rye	J. D. Salinger
			Brave New World	Aldous Huxley
			Slaughterhouse-Five	Kurt Vonnegut
	Warsaw	School Board	Go Ask Alice	anonymous
			The Bell Jar	Sylvia Plath
			The Stepford Wives	Ira Levine
			Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students	Sidney Simon et al.
Iowa	West Des Moines	Associate Director of Instruction	The Seventeen Garbile of Class 4A	William H. Hooks
	Monticello	School Board	Jack the Bear	Don McCall
	Davenport	unreported	The Making of a Nurse . . . I'm Done Crying	unknown
			I'm Glad I'm a Boy, I'm Glad I'm a Girl	Whitney Davron
Kansas	Gardner	School Board	Jaws	Peter Benchley
Maine	Aroostock	School Board	Rabbit Run	John Ugcike
	Lisbon	School Board	The Last Butterfly	Michael Jacot
			Praise the Human Season	Don Robertson
			A Collection of Plays About Women	Megan Terry, ed.
Maryland	Montgomery	unreported	Everyone Has Important Jobs to Do	Shirley Chilton et al.
			First Steps in Horsemanship	Linton M. Real
	Howard	Media Review Committee	29 books on drug education and family life including:	not recommended
			The Electric Kool-Aid Acid Test	Tom Wolfe
			Drug Abuse and What We Can Do About It	James Bennett
	Montgomery	Board of Education	The Dog Next Door and Other Stories	Theodore Clymer et al.
	Rockeville	Superintendent	Growth With Our Language Today	David E. Conlir
			Time of Wonder	Robert McCloskey
			Naomi in the Middle	Norma Klein
			Forever	Judy Blume
	Rockeville	Director of Instructional Materials	Sports magazine	
	Frederick	Superintendent	Grendel	John C. Gardner
	Howard	Media Criteria Review Committee	Kookanee and the Kangaroo	Mary and Elizabeth Durack
Massachusetts	Chelsea	School Board	Male and Female Under 18 (a poem entitled "The City to A Young Girl")	Nancy Larrick and Eve Merriam
	Ludlow	School Committee	Our Bodies, Ourselves	The Boston Women's Health Book Collective
Michigan	Brighton	School Board	all sex education books, including:	
			Conception and Contraception	Jean C. Lipke
			Sex	Jones, Shainberg and Byer
			Population, Evolution and Birth Control: A Collage of Controversial Ideas	Garrett Hardin, ed.
			Sex Is For Real	Willard Dalrymple
			Vasectomy	John Fried
			Foolproof Birth Control	Laurence Lader
			The Sexual Revolution	McCuen and Bender
			Men and Women	Time-Life

(From Jan. 1, 1976 to Nov. 1, 1978)

Prohibited/Removed From	Reasons	Favoring Censorship	Opposing Censorship
classroom use	"offensive" definitions	parents' complaint	
school library	Carrying nude pictures or articles on sex	unknown	
school library	Objectionable language	parents' complaint	
banned in junior high and limited loan in high school library	"profane" language and explicit sex scenes	parents' complaint	librarians/educators
limited circulation	passage about "devil worship"	parents' and clergy's complaints	coordinator of school library series and librarians
both classroom and library	drug encouragement	parents' protest	
11th-grade English class school library library of a 6th-grade center	unreported	FACE (Florida Action Committee for Education)	
school library	"too profane"	unreported	
school library	vulgar language	parents' protest	Georgia Library Assn.
classroom	profanity	unknown	author/teacher
English reading class	offensive language (use of the word "nigger")	parents of black pupils	ACLU
school library	book's theme	parents' complaint	
school library	sexually explicit	school board member's complaint	
school library	spreading ill feelings	superintendent	
both classroom and library	"obscene" definitions	parents' complaint	
curriculum	profanity	school board members	English teacher
curriculum and library	"filth," "poor taste"	parent's protest, supported by "People Who Care" (a parent group)	other parents
school library	objectionable language	parents' complaint	
student library	objectionable language	parents' complaint	
junior high library elementary school library	sexist	parents' complaint	
school library	explicit sex description	parents' complaint	librarian
restricted loan	description of sex and extramarital affair	parents' protest	
classroom use	profanity and depiction of sexual acts	religious group (Baptist) protest	English teacher and the Maine Teachers Assn.
school system	sexist unfair description of horses drug education and undermining family life	NOW Chapter horse-loving teacher CARE (Citizens Advocating Responsible Education)	
school system class room use	sexist sexist, too explicit or insipid	NOW Chapter unreported	School Board member
school library			
elem. and junior high schools	sex in sport	elem. school librarian	
restricted loan to 11th and 12th grades	obscenity and vulgarity	parents' complaint	
elem. school library	racial stereotype	local resident	
banned from school system	vulgar and offensive	parents' complaint	school librarian and supporters
classroom use	explicit discussion of human sexuality	parents' complaint	
library use	containing information on birth control	School Board member	another School Board member

Tabl

State	County/ School District	Official Who Ordered Removal	Book Title	Author
	Hesperia	School Officials	We Can't Breathe	Harold Fair
	Wyoming	Principal of Rogers High School	Saturday Night Fever	H. B. Gilmour
Minnesota	Bloomington	Superintendent	Welcome to the Monkey House	Kurt Vonnegut
	Eden Valley	School Board	Runaway's Diary	Marilyn Harris
Missouri	Elden	Board of Education	American Heritage Dictionary	Houghton-Mifflin Co.
	Springfield	Director and Staff of Elementary Education	In the Night Kitchen	Maurice Sendak
New Hampshire	Milton	School Board Chairman	One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich	Alexander Solzhenitsy
New Jersey	Montclair, Westfield and Mahwah	School Board	Man, A Course of Study	Educational Developm. Center, Mass.
	Trenton	School Board	Go Ask Alice	anonymous
	Brockport	School Board	Naomi in the Middle	Norma Klein
	Newport	unreported	At the Head of the Tide	unknown
New York	Lyons	Principal	Mr. and Mrs. Bojo Jones	Ann Head
			My Darling, My Hamburger	Paul Zindel
			Go Ask Alice	anonymous
	Levittown, L.I.	Island Trees School Board	60 books removed in March 1976 and 9 books banned in June 1976, including:	
			The Best Short Stories by Negro Writers	Langston Hughes, ed.
			A Hero Ain't Nothin' But A Sandwich	Alice Childress
			Soul on Ice	Eldridge Cleaver
			The Fixer	Bernard Malamud
			Slaughterhouse-Five	Kurt Vonnegut
			The Naked Ape	William Desmond
			Black Boy	Richard Wright
			Why I Am Not a Christian	Bertrand Russell
			A Reader for Writers	Jerome Archer, ed.
			Go Ask Alice	anonymous
			Laughing Boy	Oliver La Farge
			Down These Mean Streets	Peri Thomas
North Carolina	Tar Heel	Bladen County Board of Education	At least 20 books; among them:	
			A Farewell to Arms	Ernest Hemingway
			For Whom the Bell Tolls	Ernest Hemingway
			To Have and to Have Not	Ernest Hemingway
			Airport	Arthur Haley
			The Will Boys and several volumes of poetry by black authors	William S. Burroughs
	Cabarrus	Board of Education	Janis	David Dalton
Oregon	Springfield	School Board	Life magazine	Time-Life
	Gervais	Committee Appointed by School Board	Angry Hills	Leon Uris
			The Kid's Next	Shirley Jackson
			The Dictionary of American Slang	Harold Wentworth
			The Man Who Loved Cat Dancing	Marilyn Durham
			The Betrayers	Phylis Schlafly and Chester Ward
Pennsylvania	Pittsburgh	School Board	The Bastard	John Jakes
	Emporium	Cameron County School Board	Flowers for Algernon	Daniel Keyes
	St. Mary	School Board	Sexual Deviance and Sexual Deviants	Briche Gaede and Richard Traiden
	Oil City	Allegheny-Clarion Valley School Board	Of Mice and Men	John Steinbeck
Rhode Island	Providence	Director	The Reivering	James Humphrey
Tennessee	Coffee County	School Board	Drums Along the Mohawk	Walter D. Edmonds
Texas	Eagle Pass	School Board	Go Ask Alice	anonymous
Vermont	Swanton	School Officials	Vermont, Our Own State	unknown
	Chester	School Board	Saturday, the 12th of October	Norma Fox
Virginia	Chesterfield	School Committee	Deenie	Judy Blume
			Then Again, Maybe I Won't	Judy Blume
Washington	Kent	unknown	Dinky Hocker Shoots Smack	M. E. Kerr
	King City	Northshore School Board	Catch-22	Joseph Heller
West Virginia	Morgantown	Principal	Our Bodies, Ourselves	The Boston Women's Health Book Collectiv
Wisconsin	Madison	Malcolm Stabec and City School Officials	National Lampoon	
	Milwaukee	unreported	Working	Studs Terkel
Wyoming	Jackson	Teton County School Board	Growing Up Female	Abigail Heyman

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Prohibited/Removed from	Reasons	Favoring Censorship	Opposing Censorship
school library	sexual language	parents' complaint	
school library	blasphemy	parents' complaint and local group's protest	
classroom use	sexually explicit language	parents' complaint	
school system	objectionable language	parents' complaint	
school system	objectionable definitions	a highway patrol trooper	local resident
	nudity	Director and Staff of Dept. Education	
school library and freshman English class	objectionable language	parents' complaint	
school system	prejudice against Italians	Board of Education president	
school system	"salacious, dirty"	School Board candidates	
restricted loan	offensive and poorly written	superintendent	
classroom use (temporarily)	offensive, "un-Christian" and profane	parents' protest	
11th-grade reading list	"obscene"	parents' complaint	
school libraries	materials offensive to Christians, Jews, blacks and Americans in general, "filthy," "educationally unsound"	PONY-U (Parents of New York-United)	students, backed by N.Y. Civil Liberties Union, local teachers' union and publishers
classroom use			reviewed in July 1976[2]
			reviewed in July 1976[3]
school library	profanity, sexual preference	School Board candidate and local editor	
school library	filthy language	parents' protest, supported by local pastor	
classroom use	picture of nude woman	unreported	
temporarily removed for examination	no reason given	unreported	Oregon Library Assn.
school system	objectionable language	parents' complaint	
junior English class	references to sex	parents' and religious leaders' complaints	principal
destroyed	unreported	unreported	school librarian
school system	profanity	parents' complaint	
classroom use	vulgar, sexual content	parents' complaint	
classroom use	obscenity and profanity	School Board member and minister	
school library	"racism" (objectionable content)	parents' complaint	librarian and local weekly
two pages removed	discriminatory description of Indians	Abenaki Tribal Council's protest	
7th-grade classroom use	"filthy" language	parents' complaint	State's Attorney
restricted loan	sexually explicit passages	parents' complaint	
elem. school library	vulgarity and defamation	parents' complaint	
required reading list	"objectionable" language and depiction of sexual acts	unreported	teachers[4]
school library	"objectionable" content ("anti-Bible, anti-male" and "anti-system")	parents' complaint	
cancellation of subscription	"pornographic" content, no important intellectual value and questionable moral standards	local education director	
classroom use	corrupts the morals of the young	parents' protest	
film library	sexually explicit photographs	parents' complaint	

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FOOTNOTES:
1. As a result of objections to censorship, the book was returned to the library but usage was restricted.
2. The book was placed on restricted loan.
3. The book was returned to circulation.
4. The book was placed on suggested reading list.

Table 2: Source of Censorship Pressure

State	Parent or Parent Group	Organized Citizen or Social Group	School Board Member or School Official	Other Source (Unreported, Unknown or Unspecified)	Total Number of Cases	Total Number of Textbooks Involved
Alaska	1				1	1
Arizona			1 (Superintendent)		1	3 magazines
Arkansas	1				1	1
California	3 (including one case involving parents and clergy)				3	3
Florida	1	1 (FACE)			2	2
Georgia	1				1	1
Idaho				1 (anonymous)	1	1
Illinois	2		1 (Superintendent) 1 (School Board Member)		4	3
Indiana	2		1 (School Board Member)		3	8
Iowa	3				3	4
Kansas	1				1	1
Maine	1	1 (Religious Group)			2	4
Maryland	1	2 (NOW Chapters) 1 (CARE)	1 (School Librarian)	1 (local resident) 1 (unknown)	7	38 and 1 magazine
Massachusetts	2				2	2
Michigan	2		1 (School Board Member)		3	10
Minnesota	2				2	4
Missouri	1 (Elem. Education Director)			1 (highway patrol officer)	2	2
New Hampshire	1				1	1
New Jersey	1		1 (School Board Member) 1 (Board of Education President) 1 (Superintendent)		4	4
New York	2 (including PONY-U)				2	69
North Carolina	1		1 (School Board Member Candidate)		2	21
Oregon				2 (unreported)	2	5 and 1 magazine
Pennsylvania	3			1 (unreported)	4	4
Rhode Island	1				1	1
Tennessee			1 (School Board Member and Minister)		1	1
Texas	1				1	1
Vermont	1	1 (Indian Tribe)			2	2
Virginia	1				1	2
Washington	1			1 (unreported)	2	2
West Virginia	1				1	1
Wisconsin	1		1 (Local Education Director)		2	2
Wyoming	1				1	1
TOTAL	39	6	15	8	66	205 books and 9 magazines

difficulties of daily life, from a sense of powerlessness against big government and big business, and from feelings of alienation in today's society because of changes one doesn't understand and can't control.

A Viable Compromise

Whatever the reasons behind the individual textbook censorship syndrome, educators and school officials in some places are trying to temper their relationships with these protesters with understanding and compromise instead of brushing aside all their complaints as bigotry or repression.

In Wisconsin, the state superintendent of schools has conceded (Milwaukee Journal, 1-16-78) that a parent has a right to judge whether a textbook or other material is acceptable to his or her child. On the other hand, she has said that "no parent or group of citizens has the legal right to abridge the rights of other parents, teachers or children to have access to the information which is part of the educational program."

This is a step further, and a more liberal position, than that of Ken Donelson, an English professor at Arizona State University who has proposed a more defensive position for English teachers.[19]

A report prepared by the Bureau of Instructional Media Programs of the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction and the Cooperative Children's Book Center advises local school districts that parents have "the right to request" that a textbook selection be reviewed. The report also recommends that a "reconsideration procedure" be set up to deal with any problems that arise. According to library science professor Mary Woodworth, "reconsideration" means (Milwaukee Journal, 1-16-78) establishing a process whereby any individual may challenge and ask for a reconsideration of the removal of any book from the library shelves or curriculum. Woodworth holds this process is necessary because, "One of the problems is that librarians forget that they're not God — that they can make a mistake in a selection." One might add that this also applies to school boards and other school officials in their dealings with protesting parents.

The National Education Association suggests that parents should be consulted and involved as advisers in the book selection process.

This idea is shared (Des Moines Register, 1-30-78) by Assemblywoman Rosemary Gunning of Queens, N.Y., a vocal yet pragmatic defender of rights of parents:

> I think if you take a fair representation of parents you'll always find enough common sense to make an appropriate selection of books. It is total conceit to assume that the judgment of "professional educators" is superior. I'm sure that many of us who have friends in the academic world would agree that they are not always the smartest or the most sensible of people.

Right-to-Read Successes

In spite of high-sounding complaints of protesters and the alarming tones of educators and school officials, the right-to-read supporters have scored quite a few successes against the would-be censors in this period under consideration.[20]

In addition, the courts have frequently ruled in favor of the right-to-read proponents. The U.S. District Court in Boston, Mass., held recently that a school board could either buy or not buy a book, but that once the book was on display, it was illegal for the board to remove it, as this act could be construed to be an effort at mind control and would violate the First Amendment.[21]

Pro-book organizations such as the special committee on access established by the New York Librarians Association and, in Chelsea, Mass., the Right to Read Defense Committee have been an effective brake to censors' advances.[22]

Future Trends

On the other hand, ethnic groups (blacks, Indians, etc.), other minorities and social groups (for example, NOW) will continue exerting pressure on textbook publishers and others in an effort to change their public image in a favorable direction, as well as to remedy past grievances and inequalities. It is estimated that texts reflecting racial bias and social injustice will account for most of the removals in this category in the future.

Strong pressure will still continue to come from various vigilante citizen groups, the self-righteous, the tyrannical right or left, the true believers (such as the Gablers and their followers), and the "professional" protesters (especially those who have too much free time and don't know what to do with it).

But individual cases of textbook protests, so regnant in this period, will abate in the long run, it is felt. Not only will library materials become too varied and complicated for the single parent to evaluate and protest effectively, but also the right-to-read people are becoming better organized in refuting their claims — as borne out in the Chelsea case.[23] (A combination of effort/pressure from the NEA, the ALA and their liberal supporters is an awesome force to be reckoned with.) Better organization by these groups will bring about more contributions and, for that matter, better legal advice when the censorship case goes to court. The courts, on the other hand, will hand down more and more rulings that standardize the handling of disputed textbooks — mostly in favor of the pro-textbook forces, it is felt.

Above all, there seems to be a new attitude of accommodation or even coordination among educators, school officials, even publishers, and protesters. Guidelines and procedures are being set up to handle protesting incidents more effectively, and less painfully, on both sides. Step by step, book proponents have come to grips with a delicate situation and have ceased to eschew textbook protest cases as a dangerous antecedent, endangering their occupation and their children's intellectual life. Publishers, in particular, are also making modifications in the content of textbooks to live up to the new trend. Houghton-Mifflin, for instance, has issued (Washington Post, 11-26-76) anti-stereotype guidelines to achieve 20 percent minority representation and a 50/50 male-female balance in all of its educational publications.

Finally, if literature is — as it is said to be — a reflection of society, and if the general milieu of society now is as conservative as some say, then one would expect the textbooks of the future to be less controversial.

Given also the assumption that people's general educational level is steadily increasing, it is expected that in the future it will be easier for the public to absorb and cope with controversial topics and to be more receptive to others' views.

In the past, the textbook melee took place primarily among parents, teachers, school officials, librarians and their respective supporters — all in the name of children. However, the children of today have grown up with the TV tube, and researchers claim that these TV children are more knowledgeable and open to wider horizons than their predecessors. One might therefore expect that they will be more open to ideas

dictionary based on nine words out of 157,000 entries, nonetheless, a hostile review, coupled with a few letters of objection, knocked this world-famous dictionary off the state of Texas' purchase list.[17]

Jenkinson notes that the Gablers' reviews have made an impact on schools throughout the country and the use of their materials and reviews is on the rise. More and more school teachers and administrators are finding that much of what the textbook protesters are saying invariably comes from that little town in Texas where the Gablers reside. Jenkinson also contends that the Gablers' apparently successful campaign against textbooks has led them to expand their efforts to other school materials as well.

Jenkinson warns that the Gablers and their dedicated followers have put public education "on trial,"[18] or worse, and could destroy the present system of education through the "game of instant censorship."[19] He feels their efforts should not be taken lightly nor discounted as a passing phase in the battle of textbook censorship.

Appraising Censors

Other opponents to textbook censorship join Jenkinson in perceiving the danger of this trend, and they are earnestly and methodically working to refute censors' efforts and the protesters' drive to ban texts — at times with strong emotions.

In a speech before the National Science Teachers Association, Gerard Piel, publisher of Scientific American, warned of the militant activities of textbook censors.[20] These "vigilantes," Piel charged, have carried their vociferous protests into the classroom — into proceedings before school boards and state education authorities — into the courts — and into the streets. Last spring, the censors managed to carry their "agitation" to the floor of Congress and, Piel warned, these "troubled" people may have succeeded in bringing to a halt the science "curriculum reform" movement.

Piel pointed out that unsuccessful amendments, introduced by Reps. John B. Conlan of Arizona and Robert E. Bauman of Maryland, would have given Congress a veto power over the content of curriculum and research projects sponsored by the National Science Foundation. As it was, implementation funds for National Science Foundation projects for that fiscal year were canceled. Piel angrily pointed out that the "evil" aspect of these cuts was that they were the result of a few congressmen who wanted to censor only one course of study. Piel also cautioned that the textbook vigilantes' activities could unintentionally invite the federal government's meddling in public education — the very thing they most wish to avoid.[21]

At the National Council of Teachers of English annual meeting last year in New York, Jenkinson warned that contemporary censors of school material are going after these materials "with a vengeance." According to Jenkinson, they come from all walks of life. His Committee to Study Censorship has come across 40 national or state vigilante groups that exist primarily to censor textbooks and other school materials, focusing on about a dozen targets, including: books on drugs, ghettos and conflict with parents (or containing negative statements about parents); character dialogue not spoken in standard English; and works by "questionable" authors such as Langston Hughes, Ogden Nash, Joan Baez, Malcolm X and homosexuals. "Trash" textbooks are listed as Catcher in the Rye, Soul on Ice and Black Boy. Other taboos include (Christian Science Monitor, 12-19-77): secular humanism (or courses involving value clarification) and self-understanding (social and ethnic heritages or cultural aspects of family life).

Who Are the Censors?

While the term "censor" is a technical one, to the lay public it frequently carries a negative connotation, and anyone who happens to protest a book or disagree with the appropriateness of its contents is labeled "censor." This is the other side of the coin in the quest for a middle ground in choosing textbooks. As the education director of the Heritage Foundation in Washington has pointed out (Des Moines Register, 1-29-78):

> The word censorship is a red flag being waved by those who would prefer to exclude parents completely from the selection of their children's books. The issue is not censorship, but whether parents have the right to some input into the selection of books that their children read and that they are paying for with their tax money.

Protesting parents have often been pictured by book proponents as reactionary, repressive, troublemaking, fundamentalist, or stupid and uneducated individuals.[22] Critics have failed to distinguish two kinds of textbook protesters:

1) The organized citizen group — such as Parents of New York-United, the Daughters of the American Revolution or other permanent citizen organizations that have long-range planning and a fixed goal of protesting or censoring textbooks that do not fit their standards.

2) The individual parent or one-shot protester — such as an individual who considers a book offensive and protests its use to a teacher, school official or school board member. Tables I and II reveal that most parent protesters belong in this category.

To label a one-shot textbook protester a "censor," "book burner" or "violator of the First Amendment" may not serve any useful purpose for the right-to-read supporters — other than name-calling. Many of the protesters think of themselves as little people having no ambition to undermine or change the public school system. They simply want to protect their children from being exposed to ideas or influences contrary to their religious beliefs or traditional values, morals or way of life. They demand that schools take due precautions in selecting textbooks and be more responsible in using them in teaching.

Reasons for the Censorship Rise

According to Jenkinson, social unrest is (Christian Science Monitor, 12-19-77) to blame for much of the rise in censorship during recent years. The school has become the scapegoat of concerned parents and vigilante groups who lash out in their frustration against change that they do not understand. According to Jenkinson, the public school system is the most visible and most accessible level of government and frequently becomes their target.

Other authorities explain textbook protestation in terms of a general tendency in America to return to conservatism — a reaction to the liberal or radical 1960s with its war protests, drug culture and sexual liberation.

On the other hand, Barbara Luebke says that book protest is an attempt by parents to demand accountability from the public education system.[23]

Book condemnation has also been interpreted by others as a way to release the anger and tension accumulated from the

and that children exposed daily to a dose of sex, alcohol and violent acts on the TV screen will not find items in textbooks formerly considered shocking all that consequential.

In the future, perhaps, while there may be more protests and hence more parental influence on textbooks and other school materials, it is anticipated that there will be actually less removal or destruction of them. It is hoped that the celebrated "Kanawha County Textbook Burning Episode" will become known as the vertex of the protest movement and that there will be no future re-enactment.

Even so, it is predicted that public education will not find rosy days ahead in the ambience of stricter conservatism (as shown by the 1978 election results), more federal government involvement (though subtle), frequent teachers' strikes and tax revolts — but that is another story.

FOOTNOTES

1. Bruce A. Shuman, "A Geography of Censorship: A Regional Analysis of Recent Cases," Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom 26 (January 1977), 3.
2. Ibid., p. 4.
3. Fred Thompson, "A Brief History of Book Censorship in Brief," Report 193 (Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri School of Journalism, February 1968), and Max L. Marshall, The Right to Read Controversy, Freedom of Information Center Report 199 (Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri School of Journalism, April 1968).
4. As an example of textbook assessment, Ernest W. Lefever, director of Georgetown's Ethics and Public Policy Center, selected a rather typical textbook, American Government in Action by Miriam R. Resnick and Lillian H. Rosenberg, and asked highly qualified critics independently to evaluate it. The critics were: Michael Novak, professor of religious studies at Syracuse University; Jeane Kirkpatrick, a resident scholar at the American Enterprise Institute; and Ann Crutcher, a veteran journalist and editorial writer for the Washington Star. They evaluated differently, but all criticized the book. Novak chided the book for promoting the cause of big government. Kirkpatrick charged that it failed to communicate traditional Western values. Crutcher objected to the authors' brushing aside personal responsibility for social wrongdoings.
5. Edward B. Jenkinson, "How to Condemn a Book Without Reading It," Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom 27 (May 1978), 49 and 72.
6. James C. Hefley, Textbooks on Trial (Wheaton, Ill.: Victor Books, a division of SP Publications, Inc., 1976).
7. Charles H. Busha, ed., An Intellectual Freedom Primer (Littleton, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, Inc., 1977).
8. John Milton, writes in Areopagitica:
"Though all the winds of doctrine were let loose to play upon the earth, so Truth be in the field, we do injuriously by licensing and prohibiting to misdoubt her strength. Let her and Falsehood grapple; who ever knew Truth put to the worse, in a free and open encounter." The Oxford Dictionary of Quotation, 2nd ed. (London: Oxford University Press, 1959), p. 352.
9. Jenkinson, p. 49.
10. Ibid.
11. Ibid., p. 71.
12. Perhaps this is one of the trickiest points in the whole controversy. Teachers and school officials strongly criticize parents' hypocritical condemnation of an entire book just because of a very small part or a few words. But it is not unusual that it is these few words, sentences or part which makes the book important.
13. Jenkinson, p. 73.
14. Ibid., p. 49.
15. Gerard Piel, "Congress Shall Make No Law . . .," Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom 33 (September 1976) 108 and 139-32.
16. On the contrary, Eugene H. Methvin accuses the National Education Association leadership of forming an alliance with the federal government and transferring control of public education from locals to Washington, D.C. This, Methvin charges, signals the end of traditional grassroots control of education by school boards, teachers, parents, pupils and taxpayers. Eugene H. Methvin, "The NEA: A Washington Lobby Run Rampant," Reader's Digest, November 1978, p. 101.
17. Barbara P. Luebke, Textbook Censorship: New Aspects, Freedom of Information Center Report 341 (Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri School of Journalism, February 1978), pp. 1 and 4; also, Piel, p. 131.
18. Luebke, p. 5.
19. Ken Donelson, "What to Do Before the Censor Arrives," Journal of the Producers Guild of America 17 (June 1975) 15-16 and 36.
20. See Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom 25 (January 1976), 25 (March 1976), 25 (September 1976), 25 (November 1976), 26 (January 1977), 26 (March 1977), and 26 (May 1977).
21. "The First Amendment: Massachusetts Judge Orders Banned Book to Be Returned to High School Library," Publishers Weekly 214 (31 July 1978), 31. See also "Federal Court Reverses School Library Censorship," Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom 27 (September 1978) 113 and 125-28.
22. "Federal Court," p. 113. Also, "NYLA Acts on Rights of Minors," Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom 29 (January 1979) 1.
23. Partially as a challenge and rebuff to the Chelsea, Mass., School Committee's censorship of the anthology Male and Female Under 18 (because of the theme and language of one of its poems, "The City to a Young Girl"), the ALA Intellectual Freedom Round Table bestowed on Chelsea High School librarian Sonia Coleman the 1978 John Phillip Immroth Memorial Award. The local Right to Read Defense Committee was also given cash grants from the Freedom to Read Foundation. "Federal Court," p. 113.

Mr. JACKEL. It should be added here that publishers agree with other educators in support of the principle now well established in law, section 432 of the General Education Provisions Act, and other provisions that proscribes Federal control, supervision or direction of the contents of texts and other instructional material.

Six, followup activities. Following the adoption of a textbook in a given school district, publishers provide a wide range of consultive services to teachers to assure the most effective use of materials. These services include seminars, workshops, and individual and group consultations. Such inservice education is important in assuring the effective use of the texts.

The private sector is much concerned with the elimination of functional illiteracy. The Association of American Publishers has for several years made literacy a major concern in our program. But this concern is not just limited to book publishers. Newspaper and magazine publishers, advertisers and industry generally have joined with Federal, State, and local authorities in efforts to promote the ability to read.

The recently enacted title II, Basic Skills Improvement of ESEA, as you know, goes into effect the beginning of the next fiscal year on October 1, 1979. We are hopeful that the information adduced from this series of hearings will be helpful to the Right to Read Office, as well as parallel State and local offices, in planning for and administering this new program. To this end, we should like to offer the following recommendations to the committee:

One, hearings held by this subcommittee should be printed as soon as is possible in order that they may be read and studied by all concerned.

Two, the committee should file an interim report in the near future. If the committee waits until later in the year to file a report, it will be too late to have an influence on the basic skills program which will go into effect in a little more than 2 months from now.

The fact that the basic skills budget has already run into difficulties in the House even before the new program has gotten underway—its budget was reduced from $35 million to $30 million—adds weight to our concern that the guidance given by early publication of these hearings and an interim report could well be helpful in getting the basic skills program moving in the right direction.

Mr. Chairman, the remainder of the testimony of the school division will be given by Mr. Gladstone.

Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Gladstone?

Mr. GLADSTONE. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

My name is Richard Gladstone, and I am a senior vice president of Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass. I am here today to testify on behalf of the School Division of the Association of American Publishers. As a publisher, I appreciate the opportunity to appear both in print and in person. Inasmuch as my printed testimony is available to the committee, I will take the liberty of reviewing briefly the salient points in it, and perhaps elaborating on one or two of them.

A question which has been a primary focus at times has been, "What is the best method or kind of text to teach reading?"

There are many different answers to that question on which a number of witnesses have expounded during these hearings. At least one strong and extreme opinion was expressed to the point that there is only one approach to reading instruction which should be sanctioned. I could not agree less. Neither I am sure would almost all the publishers of basic reading programs. We in the business of developing and disseminating materials for the teaching of reading all hold strong convictions as to the logic and effectiveness of our programs. That one method propounded so forcefully as sure fire is the so-called systematic phonics approach.

Without subjecting this committee to a lengthy philosophical and technical dissertation on methods of teaching reading, let me say simply that the term "phonics" has been stretched and strained to the point where it is essentially meaningless as far as reading systems are concerned.

I doubt that today there is even one program which does not incorporate a phonetic technique of some kind. And without question, the so-called sight approach or look-and-say method—as it is also called—met its demise years ago, despite its having been described to this committee as still alive and kicking.

Another question which has materialized, not unexpectedly: "What about the reading level in textbooks being lower by one or two grade levels?"

As a result of requests by school authorities, the reading difficulty levels of some texts have been limited, it is true. But this is partially the result of the fact that more and more youngsters are continuing in school who would otherwise have dropped out. In 1950, some 46 percent of all children completed high school; the level has since risen to 80 percent. The limitation in reading difficulty levels is also due to the proliferation of courses within academic disciplines and greater attention to the individual needs and aptitudes of students. However, in some cases books are actually more difficult than their predecessors.

As for determining readability, there are more than 30 different readability formulae. Yet only a handful of them are commonly used. Even then, different levels of readability of the same text may be obtained by using one or another of the generally accepted formulae. Or different readability levels may be obtained from different authorities who use the same formula. And I would like to come back shortly and add to that to some extent.

One must not overlook the fact that there is a difference between readability and comprehensibility. As one of the participants in a recent conference at the Library of Congress pointed out: "The opening words of Hamlet's soliloquy—'To be or not to be; that is the question'—are simple enough to be read by a child in the lower grades. But understanding them is something else again."

A third question: "Why can't textbooks be used year after year instead of being changed so often?"

In the first place, the physical life of textbooks in areas such as reading, mathematics and science is expected to be from 3 to 5 years. As many as 10 different youngsters may use a single book in that time. In other areas, such as music, art and literature, it is not uncommon for textbooks to be used from 4 to 8 years.

But more important are other factors. For the most part, both parents and educators in this country want texts to be up to date. A volume that was published before the moon landing, for example, would be unacceptable to both students and teachers in certain science or history classes.

Another question: What about the assertion that publishers work in a tight partnership with the education establishment to dictate curriculum content and textbook selection?

As Mr. Jackel mentioned in his testimony, the number of persons participating in the textbook selection process is growing year by year. Increasingly, teachers are becoming involved, and parents, too, are participating more in the process.

Educational publishers and educators do, however, engage in a working partnership, as they must. Teachers write the books, other teachers select books, and teachers also determine course content and curriculum guidelines. I believe a more modern term for this is a "symbiotic relationship." Even all this, however, does not assure a ready acceptance of a publisher's wares in the school systems.

I might point out here that the Congress itself does not accept at face value the allegation of a too close relationship between publishers and educators. In fact, it finds that needed cooperation has been lacking and is necessary and desirable as exemplified by section 1248 of the Education Amendments Act of 1978.

It has been said, "Elementary-secondary textbook publishing may be small, but isn't it true that book publishing itself is a dominant American business?"

Mr. Jackel has testified to the size of school publishing and Mr. Amerman will testify as to the size of college publishing.

I will simply add to their data that total book sales in 1978 were $5,772,200,000. Looking at the Fortune 500 list, we find that 38 American corporations each had more in sales than the entire book publishing industry combined. An important industry, yes, but scarcely a dominant one.

Although expenditures for textbooks are shamefully small—seven-tenths of 1 percent of total school spending—repeat, seven-tenths of 1 percent of total school spending—when schools begin to cut back on expenditures, they find it easy to defer textbook purchases until another year.

Another question: Do publishers capitalize on the popularity of television among children?

In some supplementary materials distributed to schools by textbook publishers, the scripts of television shows are included as learning devices for youngsters.

To return momentarily to the question of readability—reading difficulty level—much has been made in these hearings and elsewhere about the lowering of the level of reading difficulty in American textbooks generally. I would point out respectfully, however, that while this has been true to a considerable extent it has not been of the publishers' choosing.

Further, the generalization has usually been stated in terms of the rewriting of american textbooks. Again, I suspect this statement has validity in some cases, but by no means in all. It has not been the existing history textbook, for example, that has been revised downward, but rather a new book geared to a lower level

has appeared as an alternative. The older text may well have been kept up to date and still be available without any change in its level of language sophistication.

Finally, there is more to weighing the difficulty of a text than the rather simple grade level rating through a readability formula which ordinarily takes into account two factors—vocabulary and sentence length. Assessing the real difficulty or ease of a text calls for consideration of such criteria as the score and depth and complexity of the course and the concepts and facts to be covered. A comprehensive American history text can be written in relatively simple language. The question is, how detailed is it? How much do it and the teacher demand of the student?

Another area of concern which, to my knowledge, at least, has not been discussed at any length by and before this committee, is the degree to which the Government should intervene in the national effort to upgrade education, and by what means. Once again, there are many answers certainly, and there are divergent opinions. It is my feeling, however, that the publishing community would support strongly an investment at the Federal level in a massive literacy effort to raise books to the level of respect they enjoy in so many other countries. This would include inexpensive or free book distribution programs for children, and the enhancing of school library and public library resources.

On the other hand, it would be not only unnecessary but undesirable for the Government to put large sums into the development of major basic curriculums, and in particular, into the development of the learning and teaching materials essential to their application.

If we hark back to the early sixties when the Government was bankrolling dozens of so-called curriculum groups, many of those groups trust on publishers and, through the, on the schools a number of courses of study, and the books with which to teach them, almost none of which really lived up to the reformers' expectations. That was the heyday of what we called the "chosen curriculum," and if we look back at just one, the Physical Science Study Committee—or PSSC, as it was called— we find that it succeeded in driving students away from the secondary school physics course. At the time, it stifled the opportunity for the publishers to do something better, although the original intent of the National Science Foundation in sponsoring those programs was to stir the pot, to encourage enlightened competition, and to open up the markets—but that just did not happen. The truth is, the publishers would have selected the same authors out of the universities, applied technical know-how in the building of textbooks that the ad hoc groups lacked, and on the whole would have done the job more economically and effectively.

Some people have alleged that publishers have been too quick to jump at "fads" in education. One of the prime examples cited was the universal adoption of the now defunct "new math." But again, that phenomenon was the result of Government sponsorship through the likes of the school mathematics study group, and the subsequent mass orientation of a generation of elementary school teachers at Government expense. The publishers had no choice but to chase after a bandwagon which was far down the street before they could board it.

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We have been examining an industry that is characterized by both a salutary diversity and a common determination to improve the quality of education in this country. While it is difficult, therefore, to provide definitive single answers to the major questions we have discussed, I hope the principles and practices which have created them are viewed in the light of necessity and logic. That the teaching of reading will reflect endless variables, that readability levels will be subject to statistical and theoretical differences of opinion, and the periodic changes in textbooks will be inevitable and desirable, all add up to the need for a continuing close collaboration between the educational publishers and the schools they serve.

And now Mr. David Amerman will discuss the college textbook publishing industry.

Thank you.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Gladstone.

Before introducing Mr. Amerman, I should note that also Senator Javits is here, and that accompanying Mr. Jackel and Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Amerman is Mr. Roy Millenson, who for many years was a valuable member of the Human Resources Committee staff, specializing in educational matters, and has made a vast contribution to the legislation that is on the books in the area of education. He was a valuable aide and associate of Senator Javits in these efforts on this committee.

So we welcome you, too. And Mr. David Amerman of Prentice Hall.

Mr. AMERMAN. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

My name is David Amerman. I am president of the College Division of Prentice-Hall, Inc., and appear here today as chairman of the College Division of the Association of American Publishers.

I, too, have submitted a written statement which I will highlight.

There are 44 publishing houses in the AAP's College Division. None of those publishers has more than 12 percent of the college market, and in no single course of study does any publisher have the majority of the market.

To give you some idea of the magnitude of college publishing, all college textbook sales totaled an estimate $749,200,000 in 1978. Thus, the total college textbook sales were less than the individual sales of each of the top 313 industrial corporations in the United States, as listed by Fortune magazine. As a matter of fact, seven Missouri firms each have individual sales ranging from two to more than seven times as much as the entire college textbook publishing industry.

About 10 percent of college textbook publisher income is from export sales. American texts are much in demand throughout the world in certain disciplines such as engineering, business management, science, and computer technology.

Our association distributes a number of publications to acquaint college students, their teachers, potential authors, and the general public with college textbooks, their use, and how they are published. I should like to present some of these to the subcommittee, not only for your own edification, but also with the thought that you may wish to pass them along to members of your family or

others now attending or considering attending one of the some 2,800 colleges and universities in our Nation.

Today the textbook is the core component of the students reading material. Illustrative of their variety are the 120 different general psychology texts, the 105 different general sociology texts, the 50 different accounting texts and the 75 different general chemistry texts. Obviously, this is a competitive business.

The gestation period of a college text averages about 3 years; some are more, some are less. This involves research and writing by the author; editing, designing, illustrating, proofing, printing, and binding—the principal elements of producing a book before it is ready for distribution. Preparation costs vary. For a large, highly illustrated basic text, a publisher's investment could be as high as $300,000 to $400,000 before a single book has been sold. A more usual figure, however, might range between $30,000 and $50,000.

The publisher must estimate how many copies of the text will be sold when he places the printing order for the book—it should be noted here that most publishers do not do their own printing but contract out composition, printing, and binding to firms specializing in that work.

Because of the diversity of college courses and curriculums within courses which not only vary from college to college, but also within colleges, sales of most individual textbooks do not run to large numbers. There are exceptions, of course, such as Dr. Paul Samuelson's classic text on economics—but only a handful of textbooks sell as many as 100,000 copies a year.

College textbooks must be revised from time to time because of new knowledge, new teaching techniques, changes in academic disciplines, modifications of student needs, or competition from other publications, or a combination of these factors. The decision to change a textbook in a class is made by the course's teacher. New editions may be published after from 3 to 7 years, but all revisions do not necessarily mandate a totally new edition; some relatively minor changes can be made in subsequent printings, thus extending the life of the existing edition.

In order to acquaint college teachers with the text so that they may consider adopting it for use in their classes, examination copies, or "sample copies," are sent either through the mails, or delivered by publisher representatives known as college travelers. When a teacher decides to adopt a text, the college bookstore orders a quantity based on the teacher's estimate of the number of students who will enroll in the course. These estimates must be made well in advance of the start of the term so that the books can be ordered and delivered in time for the course's beginning. Unfortunately, these estimates are rarely accurate—only about 8 percent according to recent studies. In most cases—about 75 percent—college teachers are likely to err on the side of optimism and overestimate the number of students, while about 16 percent underestimate.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Amerman, I hate to interrupt, but there is a vote on, and after the vote I have to go to the Appropriations Committee markup that, unfortunately, was scheduled after we had already scheduled this hearing. That is not your fault, nor is it my fault, but the fault is the system we have around here.

I wonder if I might interrupt and put your full statement in the record, and let me ask a series of brief questions to the three panel members?

Mr. AMERMAN. Sure.

[The prepared statement of Mr. Amerman follows:]

Association of American Publishers, Inc.

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Washington, D.C. 20036
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Testimony of David Amerman (Prentice-Hall, Inc.),
Chairman, College Division, Association of American Publishers
Senate Subcommittee on Education
July 24, 1979

My name is David Amerman. I am president of the College Division of Prentice-Hall, Inc. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ) and appear here today as chairman of the College Division of the Association of American Publishers. There are forty-four publishing houses in the AAP's College Division. No one of those publishers has more than 12% of the college market, and in no single course of study does any publisher have a majority of the market. Many of these houses also publish elementary/secondary school texts and trade books (hardback novels and non-fiction sold in bookstores).

To give some idea of the order of magnitude of college publishing, all college textbook sales totaled an estimated $749,200,000 in 1978. Thus, total college textbook sales were less than the individual sales of each of the top 313 industrial corporations in the United States, as listed by Fortune magazine. As a matter of fact, seven Missouri firms each have individual sales ranging from two to more than seven times as much as the entire college textbook publishing industry.

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Our association distributes a number of publications to acquaint college students, their teachers, potential authors and the general public with college textbooks, their use and how they are published. I should like to present some of these to the subcommittee, not only for your own edification but also with the thought that you may wish to pass them

along to members of your family or others now attending or considering attending one of the some 2,800 colleges and universities in our nation.

A Few Words About College Textbook Publishing

College textbook publishing traces its history back to John Anwykyll's Latin grammar which was published by the Oxford University Press in 1483. That publishing house is still in business. The textbook did not last as long -- it fell into disuse after 400 years.

College textbook publishing in the United States did not develop as a major activity until late in the last century when attendance at institutions of higher education experienced an expansion as a consequence of the growth of public education (the Land Grant College Act had been enacted during the Civil War) and the advancement of industrialization. Today the textbook is the core component of the students reading material. Illustrative of their variety are the estimated 120 different general psychology texts, the 105 different general sociology texts, the 50 different accounting texts and the 75 different general chemistry texts. Obviously, this is a competitive field.

The gestation period of a college text averages about three years; some are more, some are less. This involves research and writing by the author; editing, designing, illustrating, proofing, printing and binding -- the principal elements of producing a book before it is ready for distribution. Preparation costs vary. For a large, highly-illustrated basic text, a publisher's investment could be as high as $300,000 to $400,000 before a single book has been sold. A more usual figure, however, might range between $30,000 and $50,000.

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In the case of the minority who underestimate, the students in that class must get along without texts until more can be ordered. In case of the overestimates, the college store must either hold the book until such time as a new class may use it or return the excess books to the publisher for credit. The college publishing business is unique in that the retailer is free to return unsold merchandise for a full credit.

In contrast, the manufacturer of clothing, for example, once he has sold his wide lapel suits or his miniskirts no longer has to worry about seeing the merchandise again, whether or not it sells to the ultimate consumer.

Differences between College and Elementary/Secondary Textbook Publishing

While there are similarities between elementary/secondary textbook publishing and college publishing, there are some marked differences which bear mention at this hearing:

1. College course offerings are much more diversified and the variations of individual curricula are much more broad than at the elementary/secondary level. To put it another way, in higher education (with 11 million students) there are many more academic disciplines and a much wider range of courses with fewer students in each course than in elementary/secondary schools (with 43 million enrolled). Thus, college textbook titles, with rare exceptions, are not sold in anywhere near the volume of elementary/secondary texts. Total sales of successful elementary series may run into millions of volumes per year, for example, while very few college texts sell as many as 100,000 copies a year. The average successful college text is more likely to sell in the 5,000 to 7,000 copy range.

2. Elementary/secondary texts are purchased new by a public authority for the temporary use of minor children. College texts are purchased new or used by the students themselves (most of whom are aged 18 or over) for courses which they have selected. In many instances the books are retained for subsequent reference in later years. Elementary and high school children are discouraged from making notes or markings in their texts; college students are encouraged to do so.

Changes in the College Campus

The college campus has changed considerably from the pre World War II era when less than 15% of all high school graduates went on to a higher education. The post-war

years brought to the campus thousands of veterans who were both older and more mature than their fellow students and, in many instances, were the first of their family to go to college. Between 1946 and 1975, the number of Americans attending college multiplied nearly 4½ times.

Today our campuses are also inhabited by (1) veterans of more recent wars, (2) by many more young people from disadvantaged and minority backgrounds (including some with limited English-speaking ability) who have been encouraged to continue their education through a variety of private and governmental inducements, (3) by older persons (more than a third of all students are over 25), (4) by foreign students, (5) by part-timers (up to 40% of enrollments), and (6) by women (49% of enrollments). There has also been an increase in the number of part-time college teachers, persons whose principal occupation is other than teaching and who are not regular members of the campus community.

Federal and state programs benefitting both students and institutions have proliferated and Federal, state and local government funds for higher education have grown.

In addition, the scope of courses offered has expanded -- continuing education for senior citizens, special courses for businessmen and local, state and Federal officials, industrial education, remedial courses, to cite some principal areas.

Quite obviously, as the campus population and the curriculum have changed, so have college textbooks.

Changes in College Textbooks

In his testimony before this subcommittee on March 15, Willard Wirtz noted that the commission he headed to investigate the decline in college admittance scores had concluded that one of the causes of the decline was the fact that the universe of students had greatly expanded, including those of lesser scholastic achievement who

had not attended postsecondary institutions in prior years. This is not only a factor in the decline of SAT scores, but it is also the reason why some college textbooks, especially those utilized in the early undergraduate years and in schools like community colleges which admit almost all applicants, are pitched to a lower level of readability and sophistication than their antecedents.

It has been observed that while elementary and secondary teachers stress the three R's, many post-secondary institutions -- especially those which accept the new-type student -- are obliged to concentrate on the six R's: Remedial Reading; Remedial 'riting; and Remedial 'rithmetic. Without these simpler texts, many young people -- especially those from disadvantaged and minority backgrounds (including those of limited English-speaking ability) -- would be unable to take advantage of the opportunity for a higher education, for the colleges must in a relatively short time make up for the inadequacy o their preparation at the lower levels.

Some Problems and Opportunities

College publishers look with mixed feelings at the future. On the one hand, they see many disturbing trends.

1. We see an enrollment crisis resulting from a declining birthrate and compounded by what appears to be a waning interest in college attendance among some sectors of the college-eligible population.*

2. We see increasing scepticism about the value of an education as runaway inflation escalates education costs along with everything else. In reaction to this phenomonen, major higher education organizations are endeavoring to acquaint young people with the value of additional schooling. Good examples are The Value of a College Education, which was issued by the American Association of State Colleges and Universitie and Is College Education Worth the Cost, by Dr. Howard R. Bowen, issued by the Council for Financial Aid to Education.

*See Fred M. Hechniger column "A New Crisis for College Rolls", New York Times, June 12, 1979

3. We see a narrowing of thinking about the basic purpose of a college education. More and more the purely vocational dimension is stressed, typified by those who ask "What's the point of going to college if it isn't to get a better job?" Enrollment shifts into the more vocationally oriented disciplines have been at the expense of the arts and sciences, where students are exposed to values that help them to live better and fuller lives. We think the broader view is essential.

4. We see hundreds of colleges in trouble, particularly the smaller private liberal arts colleges, as the enrollment crunch and economic crunch combine to put them in imminent danger of going out of business or into bankruptcy -- some estimates run as high as 400 colleges in danger of going under.

On the other hand we see some encouraging trends.

1. We see a growing interest in education by many segments of our society that have been underrepresented in higher education in the past -- people over 25, minorities, women, the handicapped, and retired people. Our community colleges have literally made a college education available to anyone who wants it.

2. We see rapidly changing technology and an explosion of knowledge in all fields of endeavor that has greatly expanded the need for new education delivery systems that will "keep us up to date". This is a big challenge for our colleges and universities.

Conclusion

College publishers see themselves as full partners in the higher education system. Our futures are intertwined. We see the United States higher education system as the finest in the world with tremendous potential to help shape the future.

In concluding I would like to leave the committee with this thought from the Hechinger article to which I have earlier referred. The problem, Hechinger writes, is not, as we are often told, that there are too many over-educated Americans; it is still one of too many under-educated Americans.

Senator EAGLETON. I hope I am not being rude, but under the circumstances where they require us to be several places at once this sometimes occurs.

So let me start these three questions, and I will start with you, Mr. Amerman, then go back to your colleagues. In the early 1960's the U.S. Office of Education and the National Science Foundation both awarded grants to universities and nonprofit organizations to develop new curriculum and new teaching material.

In your opinion, did those grants have any impact, beneficial impact, on the educational process, or cause any beneficial changes in your industry?

Mr. Amerman. I think perhaps that is a question that could be better answered by the elementary-secondary representatives, because I think the grants were for programs that were ultimately to affect the schools themselves.

Senator EAGLETON. So we will start, then, with either of the preceding two witnesses, Mr. Jackel, or Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. GLADSTONE. Chairman Eagleton, I alluded to one or two of those programs in my testimony previously. And I believe I pointed out, in the case of the Physical Science Study Committee's secondary school physics program, that the impact was adverse to a considerable extent. Even though the concept from the beginning was exciting and for the first time a curriculum group was able to marshal scientists of the highest caliber—Nobel Prize laureates, university professors in great numbers—and even though, after a lengthy period of time, the committee activity did actually publish, through a commercial publisher, a textbook for secondary school physics, the course itself repelled students, and there was a lessening in enrollment in high school physics for a period thereafter.

And in other projects—biology, earth science, mathematics, social science—very few if any of the programs ever lasted beyond a few years, and almost none of them ever dominated the curriculum for which it was intended.

Senator EAGLETON. So your bottom line is that the program was not successful?

Mr. GLADSTONE. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Jackel?

Mr. JACKEL. I do not really have anything further to add to that.

Senator EAGLETON. One of your testimonies referred to the basic skills section. In fact, I guess it was you, Mr. Jackel, that mentioned you hoped that the report and findings of this committee were expeditiously promulgated so they might have some impact on the implementation of basic skills section, is that correct?

Mr. JACKEL. Yes.

Senator EAGLETON. As you read that section in its isolation, not as yet having been implemented, does it offer to you any cause for hope, or perhaps just another forlorn effort nobly conceived but not properly directed?

Mr. JACKEL. That is a very difficult question. I think, however, the beginning of solving the problem really start with talking about the problem. Whether the specific things to be done in legislation will solve the problem, is pretty hard to say.

I do think just focusing here in on improving basic skills and making people aware there is an educational crisis in this country

will go a little bit further toward solving the problem. I do not really believe that any one thing that we will do will have a dramatic impact.

I do think that this, and coupled with other measures, will provide an improvement in education in this country.

Mr. MILLENSON. Mr. Chairman, I have here a publication, "April 1977, Federal Programs With Basic Skill Components, Initial Survey," done for NIE. I do not know how many pages it has, but it is rather thick, and gives an indication of the large number of programs in the Federal Establishment.

In response to a letter we wrote, to a letter to the Assistant Secretary of Education, Mary Berry, now the Acting Commissioner, she indicated the Committee on Education will have a subcommittee to concentrate on Federal efforts in various departments on basic skills.

In this connection, I think, the title II program can be a lead into effective action both within the Federal Establishment and outside.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mr. Millenson.

That is the 5-minute warning buzzer that went on. I have to depart. I am going to ask Mr. Smith, who is the chief of staff on this undertaking, to propound a couple of other questions on my behalf, and such other questions as he and Ms. McCord may have. I have to go vote.

I apologize, but these are hectic days. Thany you very much for being here, gentlemen, and your participation, and the thoughts you have obviously given to the subject matter, and your presentation here today.

Mr. SMITH. I think this is for any one of you. It appears that at least a good part of the problem of producing the kind of challenging and stimulating book is fear of being undercut by texts that are easier and completely congenial to community views. Pablum for the masses, as someone said.

Can your association take any steps to deal with this problem?

Mr. JACKEL. This is not a matter held by the Association, but with each publishing house. I do not think the answer lies in having one textbook or one method of teaching. There ought to be easy textbooks, there ought to be difficult textbooks, there ought to be textbooks full of flowery language, and those designed for those who have difficulty reading.

The great diversity of material is available, and should really be considered a positive thing rather than a negative factor. The chief culprit, I think at this point in time, is the dependence that has been placed on reading scores by many of the people who have to make textbook selections, to the point where other benefits or detractions in the book are not looked at, but only the reading level. And that is the great danger in the current movement that we are seeing in textbook selection systems.

Mr. GLADSTONE. If I may comment on what Mr. Jackel has said, I think we are in danger of overgeneralizing on this matter of reduction in the reading level of textbooks. It depends to a considerable extent on what textbooks we are talking about.

A study of the schoolreaders for the primary grades over the past 10 years or more would undoubtedly reveal there has been a stepping up of difficulty. For example, I looked recently at three edi-

tions of a basal reading program, and found that at the end of grade 2 in 1966 the children were expected to have mastered 700 words, more or less. In the 1971 edition of essentially the same program, the number of words that were in the so-called basal vocabulary by the end of grade 2 was something on the order of 1,200. In 1976, 4 years later, that number had increased to 1,400.

So between 1966 and 1976 the program had been made more rigorous, if you will, by almost double the number of vocabulary words the children were expected to read.

Now, this is not a matter of assessing a book on the basis of a readability formula, but simply looking at the amount of material that the children were expected to absorb.

I would also point out that in the secondary schools, where there have been books written for lower level courses, there have also been books intended for courses which are way beyond the level of difficulty of past years. It is not uncommon for a publisher who, a number of years ago, was satisfied to put out a single geometry textbook for all classes in the secondary school's 9th- or 10th-grade geometry course to have as many as four separate books now, one of which may be a high level—almost beginning-college level—geometry.

Mr. JACKEL. I would like to add one thing. The reason that the association is not doing anything with readability is the antitrust regulations, and this is an intensely competitive industry.

Second, I would like to offer the committee a study which was done, called Readability in the Marketplace, which was a result of a School Division Research Committee meeting in January of 1979, which discusses what the industry is doing in the field of readability.

Mr. SMITH. Fine. I appreciate that.

[The following was received for the record:]

READABILITY IN THE MARKETPLACE

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A Presentation Sponsored by the
School Division Research Committee
at the
School Division Annual Meeting
Association of American Publishers
January 16, 1979
New York City

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BACKGROUND OF READABILITY FORMULAS

Presenter: Randall Marshall, McGraw-Hill Book Company

This presentation concerns itself with four aspects of readability. These aspects, in the form of questions, are as follows:

1. What is meant by readability?
2. What are the most commonly used readability tests?
3. How reliable are the readability tests, and which is the most reliable?
4. Are readability formulas reflective of the current influences on children?

What is Meant By Readability?

In this instance, I am referring to readability as the expected reading ease of a particular work stated in terms of a school grade level. This, then, has to do with the difficulty of the sentence structure, as well as the difficulty of the vocabulary used in conveying meaning. Generally, readability could also involve study of appropriate typefaces and sizes for different levels in school text publishing and could also involve actual line length. In this discussion, we are limiting ourselves to the original definition, which does not involve typefaces and sizes, nor line length.

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What Are The Most Commonly Used Readability Tests?

According to George R. Klare, in his book , The Measurement of Readability, copyright 1963, there are 31 different formulas. The most commonly used, however, appear to be Flesch, for grades 3 - 12; Dale-Chall, for grades 3 - 12; Spache, for primary grades; Fry, for intermediate elementary grades and above; Farr, Jenkins, and Paterson, which is a variation of the Flesch Formula and presumably for adult levels; and the Gunning Fog Index, presumably for grades 6 - 12.

How Reliable Are The Readability Tests, And Which Is The Most Reliable?

It is most difficult to determine whether one readability test is more reliable than another; however, experience and some statistical research seem to indicate that certain formulas are better than others for particular grades.

In common use today and, therefore, presumed to be more reliable by publishing houses are the Spache Formula, for primary grades; the Fry Formula, for intermediate elementary grades and above; and the Dale-Chall Formula, for upper elementary and secondary grades. Probably the best known is the Dale-Chall Formula.

Are Readability Formulas Reflective Of The Current Influences On Children?

The purpose of a readability formula is to test basic comprehension and reading ease (speed of processing a text) at various levels. It would appear that an extended word list to incorporate television vocabulary, space vocabulary, and other special language prevalent today would have little or no effect on the overall readability score. What would happen is that the formulas, themselves, would become exceedingly complex to run. The end results of attempts to improve formulas appear to be no better than that which we have already attained.

To answer the question specifically, "Do readability formulas reflect current influences on children?", this answer is most probably "no." To go one step beyond, "Would we have more reliable formulas if they did reflect current influences?", the answer is still most probably "no."

The message to publishers appears to be that we should publicize the formula, or formulas, used in the development of a given program and, whenever possible, have the samples selected available, along with an explanation of any extenuating circumstances. Thus, we may explain to our prospective customers exactly how the readability level was determined for any particular product.

READABILITY AS THE EDITOR SEES IT

Presenter: Bryan H. Bunch, American Book Company

Most textbook representatives or editors have or will soon have received a letter similar to the one I got as a Christmas present from Fort Collins, Colorado, this year. One of the school districts wanted to inform American Book Company that they were about to purchase over a thousand copies of an eighth-grade textbook and that they would like to see samples. In addition to their sampling requirements, they also stated, "we require a minimum of two reading level analysis (sic) (preferably Dale Chall and Fry). If the reading level of your material exceeds 6.5-7.5 range on the Fry scale, please do not send materials." That letter, in a nutshell, is the problem.

To start, let me point out that the first hundred words of this talk have a "college" rating on the Fry scale, and would be unacceptable to Fort Collins for the eighth grade. The same passage has a Dale-Chall raw score of 8.6661, which gives the passage an 11th-12th grade rating on that scale. An unscrupulous representative might provide the Dale-Chall raw score of 8.6661 in the hope that the school district would accept it as acceptable for an eighth-grade textbook.

Note that the Fry score is higher than the Dale-Chall. This is usually the case. A mini-survey that I took suggests that almost all publishers rely on the Dale-Chall system most of the time. Some researchers believe the Dale-Chall is more reliable than the Fry - although this is very hard to prove. The Fry is easier to compute so most schools seem to use it. With the publisher using the Dale-Chall and the school using the generally higher Fry, the publisher is often at a disadvantage.

As it happens, American Book Company does not have an eighth-grade textbook in the subject being called in Fort Collins, but we are working on one. I checked with the editor to establish the exact procedure we are using on this project. A free-lance copyeditor had been employed to Dale-Chall (the word had become a verb!) the edited manuscript as each chaper was finished. The free lancer took samples every five pages and submitted worksheets. The editor was planning to re-edit if the Dale-Chall index was higher than a raw score of 6.5, which is the midpoint of the 7th-8th grade corrected reading level. However, the first batch of samples had a raw score of 6.01, so no further editing was needed.

This is the most common procedure at American Book Company: someone, usually freelance but often the editor, Dale-Challs edited manuscript; then, the manuscript is re-edited if necessary. The corrected grade level aimed for is approximately one level less than the grade level at which we expect the book to be used. Even though we know the Dale-Chall raw scores give a span of two grade levels, we interpolate to estimate for a single corrected grade level.

When the book is published, our marketing department checks the reading level. Because different samples are taken, even though the same method is used, there is often some variation in the score. Unless there is a special request from the field for some other rating, the scores that marketing releases to our field representatives are based upon the Dale-Chall system.

Usually the situation is more complicated. The Dale-Chall system does not work much below the fourth grade. Thus, a different formula, the Spache, is used for the primary grades. Textbooks contain a variety of different material. Samples taken at random may entirely miss some important feature of the book. For example, a high school biology textbook may contain two pages of original research in each chapter.

These sections will usually be at a much higher reading level than the rest of the book. Do you "rig" the samples to include these? Or to exclude these? Or take your chances on the samples?

Mathematics and music present specific problems also. The current crop of mathematics textbooks tend to have very short or even nonexistent explanations of concepts or processes. They have very few words except on "word problem" pages. However, word problems typically take up less then 5% of an elementary mathematics textbook. So if you limit your samples to the problem pages, the readability rating does not tell very much.

In a music textbook, most of the book is songs. A possible hundred-word sample might be:

La la la la la la la la la la la
La la la la la la la la la la la
La la la la la la la la la la la
La la la la la la la la la la la
In Bahia town, town, town, town,
In Bahia far away the coconuts fall down
and the second verse, which is similar to the first.

Furthermore, in any content area, such as science, social studies, or language arts, there are technical words used. If you are trying to teach the famous "eight parts of speech," you have to use the words <u>noun</u>, <u>verb</u>, <u>adjective</u>, and so forth, over and over;

yet,none of these are on the Dale list of familiar words. One common solution is to say that all technical words, since they have been taught, are familiar. This greatly reduces the reading-level rating, even if it does nothing to change the actual level of difficulty. I think this procedure is valid, but you must inform the potential customer that it has been used. Thus, we often give two Dale-Chall ratings: with and without technical words. To be absolutely fair we should give the list of technical words counted as familiar, but this procedure is not generally employed.

Another solution to the problem of technical words is to use a rating system that does not rely upon a word list. The Fry system has this advantage. It can be particularly misleading in some subjects, however, for it relies upon the number of syllables in each word as one measure. In mathematics, for example, one may have an almost impenetrable discussion of sets, groups, rings, and related concepts without ever using lengthy technical terms.

Reading textbooks and literature textbooks present different problems that are solved in other ways, although readability scales are also used as described above. In a reading series at the lower grades there will usually be a controlled vocabulary (although not always). The word list used is generally different from that used in spelling, especially in first grade, because spelling translates sound regularities to sight irregularities while reading does the opposite.

Furthermore, readers have controlled sentence length level by level. A style book for a reading series will also prescribe how soon a new word should be repeated and how often it should be used in a particular selection. These controls may be checked by computer also, but usually they are accomplished by human intervention. Finally, the amount of revision permitted on a permission selection may prevent re-editing for readability. This can lead to the deletion of selections that would otherwise be suitable for the textbook.

Many publishers, including American Book Company on some projects, have turned to the computer for help with various problems. There are two different approaches here. In one, the computer is used to perform readability checks on samples of the manuscript (or finished book). In the other, the high speed of the computer is used to assess the readability level of each hundred-word passage in the entire work.

When a sampling technique is used the presumed advantages are speed, accuracy, and the production of several different ratings for the same passage. This last employs several different systems, some with more variables than either Dale-Chall or Fry. All of these "advantages" appear somewhat ephemeral to me. A good free-lance copyeditor who has had some practice can get results faster than we can use them in editing and sooner than we will need them in marketing. The freelance cost is less than any price I have had quoted for a computer service (typically the computer cost is $5.00 a sample). No computer program can make the subtle adjustments required in determining how to count special cases in the Dale-Chall system.

While the program may call for human intervention at some critical points, other critical distinctions will be glossed over. Finally, while some more complex readability-rating systems can improve upon the accuracy of Dale-Chall and Fry, there is usually sufficient variability from passage to passage to make the simpler tests adequate for educational purposes.

When the computer is used to check readability on the entire text, the situation is different. This process would be beyond manual ability in any sensible time frame. A program can be used that will point out to the author passages of exceptional difficulty, so that the author or an editor can re-edit the entire manuscript to produce a definite reading level or a smooth transition over the course of the year from a grade-level below to on-grade level.

Aside from the possibility that this procedure might actually improve the book, there are promotional advantages to be gained. I have been told by another publisher who actively promoted this practice in certain high-school books that it was a definite sales advantage. Of course the concept level may contain difficulties that would remain. Finally, the practice is both expensive and time consuming.

Because American Book Company is an old publishing house, we frequently receive textbooks from the nineteenth century or first part of the twentieth century that someone has found in his or her attic. Many of these textbooks, especially those from the 1930's, are patently easier to read than the corresponding textbooks of the 1960's and 1970's. Sentences have been kept short and vocabulary has been controlled. The content is lively and the level of difficulty of content seems to be consistent. These results were obtained without reading-level rating scales. They were obtained by careful editing by editors who knew children. In the 1960's

we began to let other things get in the way of the goals of ease and high interest. Inquiry, the inductive method, the new math, process, modern linquistics, social-science content, and so forth became gods to which we sacrificed careful writing and high interest. Today we must watch not to let this happen with the "basics."

When I was teaching I had a student who couldn't read. Kent was in the ninth grade, but he could not read as well as most second graders. Nevertheless, he managed in the course of a year to read all of Guadalcanal Diary -- because he was interested in war and killing. If the student is interested in the material and can read at all, he or she will find a way to do it. Editing for readability can make the material more accessible, and good editing will improve a selection. It continues to be vital that the material be of some interest in the first place.

Jeanne Chall's study of why SAT scores have been declining suggested that easier textbooks were one cause for the decline. We continue to pitch our textbooks at one grade level below intended use because places such as Fort Collins demand it of us. This is, in my judgment, an educational mistake although apparently a business necessity. While we should not go back to the excesses of the 1960's, our best contribution to education would be to produce high-interest textbooks just slightly above the expected ability of the student. Challenge is motivation in itself. Readability rating scales could help us to do that, but thoughtful editing is still the most important factor in producing useful textbooks.

READABILITY AS THE EDITOR SEES IT

Reactions: Richard E. Peterson, Scott, Foresman and Company

Before reacting to Mr. Bunch's paper, I would like to discuss why the marketplace is so interested in the readability of textbooks. I feel there are two reasons:

1) There is a frustration on the part of teachers and school administrators who have pupils in their classroom who are unable to decode, having difficulty reading and understanding the textbooks in their classrooms. The pupils are most often functioning well below the reading level appropriate for their grade level.
2) There is parental pressure, either directly to the schools and their teachers, or through the Board of Education. The parental pressure focuses on why their youngsters are having trouble reading textbooks.

The school community and the teacher are looking for an absolute mathematical formula that answers the question "What is the reading level of this text?" Unfortunately, no such formula exists. No formula that I am aware of takes into account <u>all</u> the variables needed in determining the difficulty of a particular selection: variables such as interest, motivation, page format, as well as the sentence length, word difficulty, and so forth. The school community is looking to the publishing industry for assurance that the textbooks in their classrooms are written at a level that can be handled by the youngsters in the classrooms.

To specifically react to Mr. Bunch's paper has been difficult, since I am primarily in agreement with what he says. I can appreciate the frustration that any editor has in editing a manuscript while trying to maintain the writing style and interest of the selection within the tight constraints of readability formulas.

I would like to underscore three points that Mr. Bunch made:

1) Publishers are very much concerned with readability in all areas of the curriculum. In fact, it has been my experience that the school community is just as demanding, if not more demanding, for readability scores of textbooks in the content areas than they have been in the reading/literature area.
2) When measuring readability in the content areas, we must omit words that are unique to that content area (i.e., noun, adjective, divisor, quotient, etc.).
3) The interest level of a selection has to be kept in the forefront of an editor's mind during the development of the book. We are neither serving education nor improving the readability of the selection by producing watered-down, uninteresting content that meets readability formulas.

As we look toward the future, I would agree with Mr. Bunch's remarks regarding the value of a thoughtful and sensitive editor. It would appear to me that the human aspect in developing a text never will be replaced by a computer or a readability formula. A well-edited book that takes into consideration the readability formula, as well as the interest of the content; appropriateness of the content; the clarity of the content; and the design of the book will, without question, result in a text that is an excellent teaching tool for the pupil and the teacher.

We can and should, however, strive to educate our school friends on the use of readability formulas: how they work; what they measure, as well as what they don't measure; their strengths and their weaknesses.

I feel certain we will be answering the question "What is the readability of that text?" for many years to come. Unfortunately, however, I feel that we, as an industry, are much more enlightened as to what readability is and isn't than most of our school friends who are asking us for a specific readability scale.

READABILITY AS THE SALESPERSON RESPONDS TO IT

Presenter: Ralph Sterling, Houghton Mifflin Company

One of the most perplexing problems facing sales personnel for educational materials is the question of readability.

During the past few years, educators and publishers have become obsessed with the readability level of materials being used in the schools. Many adoption committees are requiring readability information about each text before they will even consider it for review. In fact, some written requests require a considerable amount of time and effort to compile the necessary information.

For the next few minutes, I would like to pursue the four questions shown on the transparency.

1) How do you account for differences between publishers' readability scores and those scores hand-computed by school officials or quoted in professional journals?
2) How does a salesperson know what readability formula was used and how can he or she defend the use of that formula?
3) How do you select instructional materials at the proper reading level for a mixed ability class? Can a single text be used with a mixed ability class? Will the poorer student be frustrated if the level of the instructional materials is too high? Will the better student be bored if the reading level is too low?
4) Have the readability levels of instructional materials been decreased in the last five years and, if so, is this a positive trend?

Perhaps this story concerning a salesperson in Ohio will illustrate the dilemma of the average salesperson when faced with the readability question.

During a sales presentation in Martins Ferry, Ohio, the committee asked if "these materials" had been adopted in any nearby towns. The salesperson replied that they were being used in Steubenville. A member of the committee pointed out that a salesperson from Company X had said that they were using his/her materials in Steubenville. The salesperson then said his/her materials were being used in Athen When confronted with the fact that a previous representative had said his/her materials were being used there, the exasperated salesperson replied, "that's the trouble with being last, all the good towns have been taken."

Perhaps all the good readability scores have been taken when the sales representative arrives.

Certainly every representative has been confronted by a teacher or group concerning the accuracy of the readability scores given to the representative by the editorial department. The representative will usually point out that not every passage is checked in any given text and that the makers of formulas never intended that every passage in a book be analyzed in order to measure readability. At this point the sales representative becomes defensive feeling compelled to justify the editor's selection of passages for the computation. As a matter of fact, it is amazing to see the number of requests sales representatives make of editorial departments, asking what passages were used when the reading level was compiled. Sales and marketing groups have become so paranoid about the question of readability that they sometimes go to "impartial groups" to have a certified statement that their materials are written at a particular grade level.

There is no answer which will appease those who do not agree with the readability scores we, as publishers, quote; but we, as a group, should be concerned with educating our prospective customers about the pitfalls of readability scores.

In this case, it might be helpful to consider comments of authors of two of the leading readability formulas concerning probable errors in the formulas. Dr. Jeanne Chall has said that the true readability of an individual book or passage is probably within about one grade level away from a formula's estimate of that readability. Thus, if a readability formula yields an estimate of 5.6 on a particular book , that does not mean that the book is too difficult for a typical pupil in the sixth month of the fifth grade. It should be interpreted as a book of average difficulty for students between the middle of fourth grade and the middle of sixth grade.

Spache claims that the probable true readability of one-half the selections tested by his formula will be no more than 3 months below or above the formula estimate. Of course, the other one-half of the selections will be further than 3.3 months away from the formula's estimate. Again, we see the author making it very clear that such scores are only estimates of readability.

I think the fact that the authors of the two most widely-used formulas are aware of the possible error in using their readability formulas is an important point to make in dealing with educators.

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Readability is only one of several factors which influence the student to read or not read text material. Some of those factors are:

1. The interest or appeal of the material
2. The number of concepts introduced as well as the familiarity of the concept
3. The conceptual and language backgrounds of the students

Certainly science books, by their very nature, will create problems when readability formulas are applied without excluding technical vocabulary. In many cases, however, the student is so interested in the content and/or concepts that he/she can and does obtain meaning from material above his/her reading level.

I would like to quote from a recent letter concerning the readability of two history textbooks. I believe this quote points to some of the problems we face with concept of readability and its effect on textbooks.

"It might interest you to note that I had our reading lab specialists do a series of Fry readability tests on both the old edition and..... revised editions...the results were that the Fry tests were a grade level lower on the...second edition...than on the...first edition.... yet, to a person, each and every student found the...first edition... much easier and more readable, due to its interesting style and appealing format. None of us could believe the Fry results. The reading specialists insisted that the interest level is as important as the supposed scale."

How does a salesperson know what readability formula is used and how can he or she defend the use of that formula?

Most editorial departments supply information concerning which formulas have been applied and what the readability scores are for each text. At the present time, the Spache at the primary level, Dale-Chall at the intermediate-to-adult level, and the Fry as a measure of all levels, are probably the most widely used formulas in the industry -- although the Harris-Jacobson has gained much attention in recent years with a computerized approach to the readability of materials. There is no real way to test the validity of a particular readability formula according to test experts; thus, the test used to predict readability is not an issue which can be solved with statistical evidence. In each case, it is a personal preference.

The selection of instructional materials at the proper reading level for a mixed ability class is probably one of teaching style. I will express one point of view which may be completely at odds with a publisher of materials for students of low or high ability. In general, one set of materials can be selected to be used with all students in a class. The learning level and rate may not be the same for all students; thus, the choice of the level of materials, as well as the time needed to complete materials, may vary. Most students can learn if they are given an adequate amount of time to complete material at the appropriate reading level. Reading teachers have always worked with students who are grouped according to reading ability. This approach has been effective and has given all children a chance to experience many of the same activities and stories during the learning process, even though they are experiencing them at different times and at different ages.

As we move away from reading classes, we find very little grouping according to level. We find whole groups instruction and thus a real test for the success of a single text for a class of differing abilities. In the case of mathematics, the reading level is usually below grade level when technical words are omitted. The good student is challenged by the mathematics,not the reading level; so, in mathematics, reading level is not an overriding factor in one text appealing to all groups of students. There may be the factor of the difficulty of the mathematics which creates the frustration for the slower student. In the areas of science and social studies, the interest in the subject or concept being taught can be more important to the learning process than the level of difficulty of the reading materials.

There are far too many other variables at work in the learning situation to say that children will be bored if the predicted reading level of the text is too low or that the student will be frustrated if the predicted reading level of the text is too high.

If we look at a recent study by Dr.Jeanne Chall comparing older textbooks and their recent revisions, we would find that her conclusion is that most recent textbooks have lower levels of reading difficulty than their previous editions. She feels this is not a positive trend. I am not certain a majority of the educators who are faced with declining test scores and are searching for reasons for the decline are in agreement with her feelings. Many educators faced with the day-to-day events in the classroom are constantly looking for materials which are not too difficult and are pleased by the trend toward easier reading levels of textbooks.

Mr. SMITH. Mr. Amerman, do you want to add anything to this? [No response.]

Jean Chall, who testified before the subcommittee several months ago, reported a particularly low level of challenge in writing. Generally the assignments in the reading, history, and literature textbooks asked mostly for underlining, circling, and filling in of single words. Few assignments asked students to write a paragraph, story, letter or theme. Even the grammar and composition of testbooks ostensibly designed to teach writing seemed to spend little time on it.

In view of the deplorable condition of writing in this country, is this not a circumstance needing the immediate attention of the textbooks publishers?

Mr. GLADSTONE. I would say it certainly is one which deserves the attention of textbook publishers, but no less the attention of schools and the curriculum committees, the textbook selection committees. I believe actually since that study was released there have been new programs published which do deal much more intensively with the basics of writing, composition, and understanding of grammatical principles.

Mr. JACKEL. I would just like to add to that. Textbook publishers should not be seen as the originators or leaders in this movement to make textbooks more simple. I believe they really are reacting to the need, or trend in the educational community itself. And this movement, I think, goes in both directions. And I think we are beginning to see a change from the making texts more easy to the trend now which is, in fact, reversing that. We are seeing books that will be more stimulating.

Mr. MILLENSON. I would like to interject one thing here to illustrate how we have changed. It is not just schools and textbooks. My mother used to tell me, when she took a Civil Service examination, to be a stenographer before World War I, she had to write a composition.

Now, of course, to take a Civil Service examination to be a stenographer, it is highly questionable whether you have to be able to write anything other than fill out an application form.

Mr. SMITH. That brings up the last question.

The series of articles by Frances Fitzgerald in the New Yorker cites David Muzzey's American History as an outstanding text, looking at the good old days, and the kind of books not written any more, because a single person wrote it.

Could you comment on that study of Frances Fitzgerald, and why cannot David Muzzey be written in 1979, or can he?

Mr. GLADSTONE. First, I would say, without being at all critical or derogatory, I hope that was an exercise in generalities to a considerable extent, although Ms. Fitzgerald's research was absolutely astounding. In fact, I talked with her about the series of articles, and expressed wonder where on earth she found all the old books, going back to the 19th Century, for example. Probably locating the David Muzzey text was not quite so difficult.

But we depend to such an extent on our authors. And there are authors whc have a genius for writing well for certain age groups. I can think of a number of other examples of textbooks that have

had long lives which have been perhaps not quite so well known and widely used as the Muzzey, because it was published earlier.

But I believe that one of the shortcomings in the series of articles in the New Yorker was a failure to recognize that the scholars change their points of view as to what took place during various periods in history, just as textbooks demonstrate different points of view—philosophical stands. And that is to be expected.

Mr. SMITH. Any further comments? [No response.]

Well, I thank you very, very much on behalf of Senator Eagleton. I know he is sorry he had to leave early. And your testimony will be entered into the record with appreciation.

Thank you.

[Whereupon, at 2:30 p.m., the subcommittee adjourned, subject to the call of the Chair.]

BASIC SKILLS, 1979

SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 29, 1979

U.S. SENATE,
SUBCOMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, ARTS AND THE HUMANITIES,
COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES,
Newport, R.I.

The subcommittee met, pursuant to notice, at 3 p.m., in the Herbert C. Pell School, Newport, R.I., Senator Claiborne Pell (chairman of the subcommittee) presiding.

Present: Senators Pell and Eagleton.

OPENING STATEMENT OF SENATOR PELL

Senator PELL. This hearing of the Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts and the Humanities will come to order.

I am delighted to convene this hearing in this city. It is always an honor to conduct a hearing in one's own State and particularly in one's own hometown. Today represents a particular honor for me because we are holding this hearing in what was once our house. This building means a great deal to me, and to hold a hearing here on a subject I care deeply about makes this day all the more important.

As I sit here I think of the hall that this used to be, and the delight my father had in giving this to the Catholic Diocese of Rhode Island at that time Francis Flannery, who was just across the street, served as the communicating agent in this arrangement. The house served as a Catholic girls' high school through the years, and then as a Catholic academy, and then it was bought by the city of Newport from the diocese. Aaron Slom played a very real role in bringing that about.

I am very grateful to the Newport City School Committee for naming the school the Herbert C. Pell School after my father. That makes this hearing even more of a delight for me.

And I am very honored to have one of my closest colleagues with me to share this honor. Senator Eagleton is a true friend of education, and he has been one of the Nation's leading spokesmen on the need to focus our resources on basic skills achievement.

Under the auspices of this subcommittee, he has conducted a series of nationwide hearings on basic educational skills, and the knowledge he has gained from these hearings will help the Federal Government develop its basic skills programs. He has been doing this on his own initiative and with the expenditure of a great deal of time. He has conducted hearings across the length and breadth of the United States. I think all of us in the education community should be deeply grateful to him.

With this hearing today, we are focusing on an issue that is central to our educational process, namely, how do we teach reading, writing, and mathematical skills to our young. These are the basic skills of education, and there is a great deal of concern that the mastering of these skills has declined over the past few years.

We are all aware of the indications of this decline. The polls show that 65 percent of our Nation's parents believe that their children are not receiving adequate instruction in basic skills. The facts seem to support this belief.

Last year, the Scholastic Aptitude Test, the SAT, experienced another decline in test scores. Forty to fifty percent of children in urban schools are reading below grade level. One-half of all unemployed young people, aged 16 to 21, are functionally illiterate.

The adult performance project in 1977 found that 11 percent of all those with a high school education are illiterate.

The National Assessment of Education Progress, in its recent report on mathematical achievement, found that while most American students can handle the mechanics of mathematics—addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division—they become totally stumped when it comes to applying those mechanics to solving everyday problems.

A 1976 survey conducted by the Education Commission of the States found that in the area of writing skills, 50 percent of the 17-year-olds had been required to write only two or three pages in the previous 6 weeks of course work. Only 12 percent had written a short paper, and 13 percent had done no writing at all.

This decline in basic skills is a serious problem which touches the very heart of our educational system. We must continue to seek the causes of this decline and focus upon solutions.

That is why this hearing is important, because we are here to find out firsthand what teachers, administrators, school board members, and parents believe the Federal Government should do to be of help.

Senator Eagleton was instrumental in seeing that a basic skills program was included in the Educational Amendments of 1978.

We are here to learn from the experts, those of you who are involved on the front line of our Nation's school system, how the new program should work. And I will add that I have a very personal interest here, too, because I have a grandchild in the Newport public school system.

As I said earlier, to be in this house is a great pleasure to me. To show how long ago it was when I lived here, that rather large weeping willow tree outside, which some of you may have noticed, I planted myself when I was a child.

Senator Eagleton.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Senator Pell.

I am indebted to my friend and colleague, Senator Pell for his immeasurable leadership in focusing the attention of Congress on academic achievement in all levels of education.

Today marks the 10th, and I might add, the final hearing in the series of basic skills hearings which began last February. I think it is fitting and proper that we hold this final hearing in the home city of the distinguished chairman of the subcommittee.

These past 8 months for me and for the staff who have been working on this matter have been very, very useful in taking testimony from leading academicians, educational researchers, superintendents, teachers, school board members, parents, students themselves on the current state of basic literacy and computation skills.

Last year, it should be noted, Congress authorized a new program of basic skills achievement to assist States and local school districts in their efforts to strengthen reading, writing, and mathematic skills.

This year, Congress provided $35 million in funding. Now, I am not so naive to think that $35 million in money thrown at the problem will create an instant solution. It certainly will not.

But we do hope through this new program that our Federal Government will play an important leadership role. To do less, to ignore the massive problems stemming from an inability to read and to write, and to think at a level required by our complex society, will place incalculable burdens on our future generations and imprison millions of Americans with a future without hope.

I believe that the contributions of today's witnesses will be of material assistance to this subcommittee in its continuing efforts to devise the most effective steps which can be taken toward academic excellence and provide an intellectual environment which will challenge all students to make the most of the education opportunities that are afforded them. Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much for that generous statement.

And now, we come to our first witnesses, Mrs. Louise Kazanjian, chairlady of the Newport School Committee, Sydney Williams, and Mrs. Mary Macioci. If they would come forward?

I must say, I thank all of the people in the audience who have come here today, because Saturday afternoon is a hard time to get people out for a serious project of this sort. Senator Eagleton and I are deeply grateful for the time that all of you have spent coming here.

Mrs. Kazanjian, as you know I am a rather regular orthodox Democrat, and the only occasion I think I have voted for a Republican was for you, not for Lieutenant Governor however, but for the school committee.

STATEMENTS OF LOUISE KAZANJIAN, CHAIRLADY, NEWPORT SCHOOL COMMITTEE, ACCOMPANIED BY SYDNEY WILLIAMS AND MARY MACIOCI

Mrs. KAZANJIAN. Senator Pell, Senator Eagleton, members of the staff, other senatorial staff, members, superintendents, and guests. As chairman of the Newport School Committee, it is my distinct honor to welcome you to Newport, and in particular, to the Herbert Pell Elementary School.

As you know, this building was once the home of Senator Pell. And its use as a school is a great tribute to the service of both the Senator and his family to the citizens of our city, State and Nation.

You are meeting here today to inquire how the Federal Government might help improve students' basic skills. I am sure that in your previous meetings held in other parts of our Nation you have

learned a great deal about what is going on to address this problem.

I am sure that what you have learned will be a great help to children throughout our Nation and will help improve their educational opportunities. I am equally certain that the contributions of the people here you speak with today will be of great help in your deliberations on return to our Nation's Capital.

We are pleased and honored and proud to have such distinguished visitors to our city who, through their efforts, have contributed so much to the education of the Nation's children.

On behalf of the Newport School Committee, I wish to express to you our wishes for a fruitful afternoon and most importantly, therefore, hopes for success on this very important issue of improving students' basic skills and educational opportunities throughout our Nation.

Thank you so much for being here with us today.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much for your statement.

Mrs. Macioci, do you have anything to say?

Mrs. MACIOCI. Thank you, Senator Pell and Senator Eagleton.

I would like to give you a definition of what we consider basic skills in the Newport school department.

This tends to blend with the philosophy of the school department. I think one of the most important things we consider is to develop the self-worth of a youngster, and how do we do this?

We try to build their self-confidence, growing out of individual creative talents, and their enjoyment of it. And then from this, their own knowledge of who they are, and what space in life they are meant to occupy. Reading, writing, and arithmetic skills then follow in sequential order.

What we would like to tell you is how our Project Seaport, which is a title I program, focuses on basic skills. Through the years, we have refined, extended, and changed this program many times.

At the present time, we are beginning at the very lowest step. We are dealing with early age youngsters, and we are trying to identify their probable lack of skills in some areas. We don't label a child. We find—looking at it as a professional, that you can't walk before you creep, and you must back up sometimes.

We then take these youngsters, screen them in very simple developmental tasks, to find out where they may have a weakness. And then, what we do is to work with their strengths. This is where we start at this early age.

Then we look also to the main and most important teacher of their lives, their mother. So we bring the mothers into the program. And we try to teach the mothers how to help their youngsters at home with simple skills that they can use every single day. They also come and work with the youngsters in the school. Again, this is another start.

At the end of the year we go into a prekindergarten situation where they learn more skills developmentally. From grades 1 through 12 we have a very strong remediation program. This deals both in reading and math. Our guidance program also works into these programs. We use State compensatory money to finance this program in two of our target schools.

Parental involvement is very important. We try to follow this carefully because of the new rules and regulations of title I. We find that the parent involvement with our PAC has been extremely good, not so much in quantity as in quality. We do get quite a few parents to come to us both for meetings and for conferences.

We deal with them gently, ask them what are their needs, and how can we help them. We also show how they can assist at home with their youngster's skills that they learn in school and bring home.

This is a very simple presentation of our program. I am sure you are well aware of it because Senator Pell has helped us in many areas. Now we would like to give you some ideas on possibly how we could extend this program.

We can only service so many youngsters. We are limited because of the economic problems in title I. We can't service all the youngsters we would like. We are presently only servicing 584 of the possible 1,000 that are eligible for services.

Also, what we would like is more highly skilled specialists who are needed to service children with poor basic skills. We have them in our program and we see a need throughout the country. Again, we say you really need highly skilled specialists to service these children that do have poor basic skills.

A strong inservice program is very necessary for the specialist, the classroom teacher, and also the parent.

Programing should be designed to integrate with classroom instruction. Reading is just not a single skill. It is an integrated skill. It falls into all the related subjects. And, of course, we could always use more money to extend our program.

Thank you.

Mr. WILLIAMS. Thank you, Senator. I have just one or two things to add, as you may wish to ask some questions.

There are a few things that are really of major concern. One of them is time. In business and industry, time is money. In education, time is just as important.

As you know, our 180-day school year goes back quite a number of years. I don't know if we can continue to try to deal with the education of students who have some serious problems in the 180-day year. I think that the length of the year has to be looked at again.

The hours in the day is another factor of time. We are now averaging in this country somewhere around 6½ to 7 hours of instructional time in a schoolday. With all of the various things that we have been asked to do in terms of arts and humanities, physical education, recess, the lunch program, et cetera, we are trying to do an awful lot in a period of time which has remained the same for years. And we may be changing on that short time by putting more items into it.

I personally do not see where we need any more legislation than we have right now. I think there is quite a bit on the books right now. I would rather see us look at what we have and use it more efficiently and effectively.

I think we have to look at ourselves as educational leaders and try to do the best with what we already have.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much, Mr. Williams.

And I would thank you too, Mr. Robert Coulombe, for the hospitality of letting us use this school today to conduct our hearing.

I think you are very correct in saying that much of the legislation we need is on the books. The question really is one of properly funding it and properly utilizing it, and giving the educators a chance to let the program work.

I know in my years as chairman I sought to stretch out the authorization period for two reasons. Most important is to give the people in the field the opportunity to get used to a program. And, also, we have so much to do. We have to be responsible for all Federal education programs. We are always, therefore, delighted to get an additional year on an authorization.

I think with 4- or 5-year authorizations you teachers and teacher-administrators can get used to the program and its regulations and not have to keep changing as Congress changes its whims.

I thank Mrs. Kazanjian for a very fine statement. I have always admired her, as she well knows. I would add that I can think of no satisfaction that my father would have liked more than to see lots of little children here at school.

I think this is a far better fate for this house, and a nicer fate for it than has befallen many of the other houses in the neighborhood which have become mausoleum-like. What is happening in this house would have given my father great, great pleasure.

Now, I was struck with one thing that Mrs. Macioci said when she said that about half the youngsters who were eligible are served by Project Seaport. Is that correct?

Mrs. MACIOCI. Yes, Senator.

Senator PELL. Is it money that is holding it up?

Mrs. MACIOCI. We use all the money that we have been allocated.

Senator PELL. How are Newport students doing in their own achievement tests? Are they following the national decline? I guess this is a question that Mr. Williams could best answer.

Are they following the national decline, or are they bucking it and going the other way?

Mr. WILLIAMS. We have been following the same pattern as the rest of the Nation. Yet, we have been holding our own.

The one thing that I am sure you are aware of is the Wirtz report which came out about a year ago. We did an analysis in Newport which I would be happy to leave with members of your staff, as to how Newport students compare.

Senator EAGLETON. Did you mean the work study of the scholastic aptitude test?

Mr. WILLIAMS. Yes, Senator. What we did was to compare Newport's scores to the State, and then to the Nation.

Senator EAGLETON. Can you give us some reconclusion as to how Newport compared to the rest of the State and the Nation as a whole?

Mr. WILLIAMS. We were just about where the rest of the Nation was. We were slightly above in verbal scores, and we were slightly below in mathematics scores.

We in Newport, seem to have rounded the corner in verbal scores, while mathematics scores are is a little bit different. This is because the students at the high school are given their mathematics in a manner as such that they select what they want. The SAT's

test some of the things that they had in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade. Because they take the test in the 11th or 12th grades, a student will forget some of the things.

I think that here we go back to my original statement regarding time. There has to be some time to review. There has to be some time to reinforce, and I am not sure we have all that time available now.

Senator PELL. To oversimplify the reason of the down slope, I am wondering if it is the fault of the educational system, or just the increased number of youngsters who are availing themselves of the educational system. That is why the high school figures are a little deceptive, because we have more and more youngsters who are in their senior year in high school than was the case before.

Do you think that is the reason for this? Or, what would you give as the reason for this? Is it television, or the confirmed fallouts from the Vietnam war?

Mr. WILLIAMS. I think it is a combination of all those things. What Mr. Wirtz found in his analysis we also found. There is little or no differences here than in any other part of the country. There are so many things that impinge upon a student's time.

One of the things that has come to me on several occasions—from businessmen in the community—is that * * * "your students are coming out from the high school and can't read, can't write, can't figure out simple forms—a social security form, a driver's license, an area code map, all of the kinds of basic lifetime skills that people say, 'Hey, you students should know the fundamentals.'"

We did an inhouse survey a year-and-a-half ago, taking what is called a SHARP test, (Senior High School Appraisal of Reading Performance). We found that the city of Cranston, R.I., had started this and we decided that we would like to take a look at our students on a random sample basis. It covered such things as library cards, business letters, index to telephone directories, personal checks, recipes, area code map, and utilities and so forth.

We randomly sampled 9th grade and 11th grade students. We used a cutoff of 70 percent of the 118 items. It was found that most students, without having had any formal instruction, were able to pass most of those items. And I have that result to share with you as well, and also copies of the test.

We have found that students do learn and that they can pick up things that we teach them, as well as what we don't. They can use some of the skills that we give them—they can apply them.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much.

I would call now on Senator Eagleton, who has carried the load of this basic skills focus.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Williams, is the SHARP test a statewide mandated test?

Mr. WILLIAMS. No, sir, it is not.

Senator EAGLETON. Is there any statewide testing mechanism in the State of Rhode Island?

Mr. WILLIAMS. There is, and one of the presenters will be talking to you about that.

Senator EAGLETON. Is it a basic skills test in reading and math?

Mr. WILLIAMS. Yes; achievement tests in reading, math, language arts and study skills.

Senator EAGLETON. In what grade or grades is that test administered?

Mr. WILLIAMS. Usually the 4th, 8th, and 11th, I believe.

Senator EAGLETON. Fourth, eighth and eleventh? I don't pass judgment on some of these tests. They are controversial in some States.

For instance, in my home State of Missouri we have the BEST test, and some folks have the HARP test. Everything has got to spell out something. But, the BEST test in Missouri is very controversial because it is so elemental that some wonder whether it tests anything or not. But I am not going to get into test mechanisms.

Some States only test in 11th and 12th grade. I am glad that Rhode Island tests earlier on in the thing because, it seems to me that testinq only in the 11th or 12th grade is kind of locking the barn door after the horse has been stolen. It doesn't do you much good.

It's a little late in grade 12, to test the individual and find the individual is reading at third grade level, and is about ready to get their high school diploma. I would say that the majority of States test well into the secondary level and I think many times, too late.

How many students are there in the Newport school system?

Mr. WILLIAMS. A total of about 4,900.

Senator EAGLETON. Mrs. Macioci, how did you identify 1,000 of those 4,900 as needing some sort of remedial help in basic skills?

Mrs. MACIOCI. We have a very close structured selection criteria that the youngsters must meet. And this is not a single item. This is done with standardized testing scores, classroom teacher recommendation, principal recommendation. It is a team effort. We then take these youngsters but we must serve them from the bottom up, those with the most need.

Senator EAGLETON. Well, if you do not have a systemwide test for the fourth grade, how do you identify youngsters in the lower grades as needing remedial help? Does the classroom teacher do it on an individual basis?

Mrs. MACIOCI. We use some of that, yes, Senator. But we also have some census testing that we had done here in the city, including the kindergarten. We do a primary mental abilities test which we can use. We have some SRA testing that has been given. We use scores from these standardized tests. They have been given at different grade levels, but we can use this source for 2 years.

Senator EAGLETON. You said only 584 of 1,000 needed to get help. Is that because 584 qualified under title I funding?

Mrs. MACIOCI. 584 from the bottom up is as far as we can go. They are all the youngsters we can service at this particular time.

Senator EAGLETON. Is that because of fiscal constraints working within your own school system, or because these are the only eligible title I students, or why is that?

Mr. WILLIAMS. We do have a remedial reading program within the school system, so we do get to some students.

Senator EAGLETON. How many reading specialists does the Newport school system have?

Mrs. MACIOCI. Twenty full time and one half time.

Senator EAGLETON. I want to meet that half person. [Laughter.]

Are those teachers assigned to particular schools, or are they sort of roving teachers?

Mrs. MACIOCI. We have two who are itinerate teachers. Others are assigned permanently to the school each year.

Senator EAGLETON. Are the reading specialists working with students, or do they work with the classroom teacher, or both?

Mrs. MACIOCI. The reading specialists spend 4 days a week in the content area classrooms with the youngsters that have been identified, and 1 day a week she works with them in a reading lab situation, working with the youngsters that may have been absent, that may need help on a one-to-one basis, or may be distracted in the classroom. So she has to work with them both places.

Senator EAGLETON. Is the reading specialist in Rhode Island in the scheme of things, in the Newport scheme of things, paid a salary beyond that of a regular classroom teacher? Is there any special reward?

Mrs. MACIOCI. No.

Senator EAGLETON. What is the starting salary for an elementary school teacher in the Newport system?

Mrs. MACIOCI. About $9,800.

Senator EAGLETON. Are reading specialists hard to come by in this market? I mean, is it a buyer's market or a seller's market, or what?

Mrs. MACIOCI. A reading specialist is required to be certified by the State department of education.

Senator EAGLETON. Is there a surplus or a shortage?

Mr. WILLIAMS. There used to be a shortage. I don't think there is too much anymore.

Senator EAGLETON. Writing skills are far more difficult to quantify. You can't pump things into computers the way you can with math tests and reading comprehension, reading speeds, and the like.

Do any of this panel have any observations on the quality of writing skills of today's elementary and secondary school children? Is the quality, in your opinion, improving, holding about what it always has, or declining?

Mr. WILLIAMS. I would say, overall, it is holding about where we would expect it to be, Senator. Again, I go back to my original statement, time.

There are compositions which are required certainly. There are certain writing exercises which are required. The ability of students to spell, for example, has been, I think, seriously impinged upon by the things we see on television, like "Easy-Off" "Days-eze" and "LUV diapers." I think these are some of the things that we are fighting.

I think that the students today can still conceptualize pretty well what they want to say. As far as writing it, they are about where we think they can be. We, of course, would like them to do better.

Senator EAGLETON. We find—and this, again, is subjective finding on our part–that today's youngsters verbalize articulately, as well or better or comparable to children two generations back.

We believe, again subjectively, that the writing skills of today's youngsters have plummeted. I don't like to blame everything on

television, but we are becoming a more visual audiovisual world. And the notion of reading a story or a book by Conrad, or reading some Mark Twain or Charles Dickens, no one really thinks about doing that anymore. You wait until the Charles Dickens type movie comes out and see it on the tube.

But to sit at home and read some Dickens is almost considered anachronistic.

What is this system you have where you let the students select the kind of math they want?

Mr. WILLIAMS. This is a comprehensive high school based on the elective system. We try, through our guidance, to help students to choose the math or the English or the social studies that will best help them to achieve whatever their goals are at the time. And we have various kinds of mathematics. We have maybe five, six, or seven offerings in mathematics.

Senator EAGLETON. You mean as a freshman, or on a high school level? There are the many offerings, different types of mathematics courses?

Mr. WILLIAMS. No. That is during the entire 3 years.

Senator EAGLETON. I mean some mathematics geared toward the industrial arts?

Mr. WILLIAMS. Yes, sir.

Senator EAGLETON. Give me a random assortment of what kind of math you offer.

Mr. WILLIAMS. We have geometry, algebra 1, algebra 2.

Senator EAGLETON. Those are offerings for different qrade levels. Take a sophomore in high school. How many different kinds of math is he permitted to choose from at the sophomore level?

Mr. WILLIAMS. I would say about two or three.

Senator EAGLETON. And what would those be, for example?

Mr. WILLIAMS. Geometry—if the student has done well, it might be algebra, trig. We also later on, not at the sophomore level, give them calculus, advanced mathematics.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you have a track system in the Newport Schools? Do you have fast tracks, middle tracks, slow tracks, no tracking? Did you have one at one time?

Mr. WILLIAMS. I think everyone did.

Senator EAGLETON. Left totally up to you, if making the decision, would you go back to tracking, putting aside political consequences, social consequences, any outside influence, just within the halls of academia? Would you go back to the tracking system?

Mr. WILLIAMS. No, Senator. You hit a point with me that I could possibly go on for hours, but will keep it to a couple of minutes.

One of the things that I personally and professionally think we have to do, particularly at the secondary level, is to take a look at how we schedule in terms of what we know about how children learn, and and in particular how students at the secondary level learn.

We are having some students coming into our schools who have a number of various kind of problems. They have got different things working on them at home and from their peers that are a little bit different than when we were in school.

I really wonder if we are doing a service to those children by putting them into a 42, 43, or 45 minute "box'" and sending them

from room to room in that "box", particularly those students who don't learn as fast as others.

I am one of those who thinks that maybe we should take a look at some sort of self-contained classroom, at least in the middle junior high school years, to try and reinforce what has been given to these students at the elementary level, to help those who may need that additional help.

Would I go back to tracking? No, sir.

Senator EAGLETON. I will just read into the record the thing of interest for the people attending this hearing. Mr. Williams mentioned the Wirtz study that is named after Willard Wirtz, the Secretary of Labor under Presidents Kennedy and Johnson, and is a very brilliant man—I know a friend of yours as well as mine.

These were the principal conclusions of the Wirtz report, for what it is worth. You are free to agree with his conclusions or not. The report set out a set of factors thought that are to have contributed to the decline in this country in the basic skills. How many do we get here? Six. These are not in order of which made the worst contribution.

Here are the six basic conclusions of the Willard Wirtz study: One, reduction in the number of required courses, that is reduced emphasis on steady growth and verbal and mathematical confidence. Two, Automatic promotions, grade inflation, lowering of text book and other teach material standards. Reduction of homework, lowering of college entrance standards. Diminished attention to mastery of skills in society in general. That is a lot of words I pieced together there, but that covered another basic conclusion. Three, increase in TV viewing time. Four, deterioration of the family unit. Five, with respect to the very sharp decline that occurred between 1972 and 1975, you labeled, disruption in the life of the country, that is, Vietnam—I guess, to a small degree, Watergate, or what have you, during that period—diminution in learning motivation.

The Wirtz study, which was commissioned by the college board people, was it not, the entrance exam people, the people who prepared these tests, they were troubled when they saw year after year the scores going down, down, down.

They commissioned Mr. Wirtz and this panel to try to analyze why that was so, and these are some of the conclusions that they developed.

By the way, we can set the record straight. It is interesting. It should be noted that kindergarten through fourth grade reading skills are going up. I don't want to paint a totally bleak picture, but K through fourth skills are going up nationwide. Fifth grade they peak and then go down.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much, Senator.

Thank you, Mrs. Kazanjian. Thank you, Mr. Williams, and Mrs. Macioci, thank you very much.

[Information supplied for the record follows:]

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A BRIEF OVERVIEW

PROJECT SEAPORT - TITLE I

Project SEAPORT is located in a New England seacoast community of approximately 35,000. Newport is a small urban center which has a mixed economy with many businesses dependent upon the support of tourists and summer residents. The racial mix of the city is 89.5% white and 10.5% minority; however, a very high incidence of families (19.4%) of school aged children are on AFDC. Eighty percent of the residents are natives of Newport whose parents were also Newport natives. The median family income is approximately $12,500.

Education is a high priority for people in Newport. The public school facilities include nine elementary schools (N=2000) where K-5 enrollment ranges from 110 to 360; one 6th grade center (N=383); one junior high school, grades 7-9, (N=1145); and one senior high school, grades 10-12, (N=1372) and thirty children participate in a pre-kindergarten developmental program. The basic per pupil expenditure is approximately $1,800 and the average class size is twenty five.

Project SEAPORT consists of four components throughout the system. The first is Remedial Reading. This component assists about 114 Grade 4-5 pupils and 340 Grade 6-12 pupils who need extensive supplementary reading instruction in the area of reading. This program, from the elementary level to the high school level services students who have scored below the 40th percentile on standardized reading tests and are most in need of this type of instruction. The instructional time varies depending upon the individual needs of the students at the elementary level, and students in grades 6-12 are scheduled to receive 45 minutes of daily instruction. Thirteen certified reading specialists provide this instruction and are assisted by well trained paraprofessionals. Each student receives individualized instruction tailored to his or her learning needs and to his or her characteristics as a learner. Since this service is remedial in nature, it is understandable that adequate attention precludes no more than five students during the instructional periods. (See attached).

The Home School Liaison Specialist, the second component is assisted by one paraprofessional. The specialist, a full time certified professional, is responsible for two major tasks, namely, home contacts and pre-school activities. In making the home contacts, this component serves as a direct communication link between Title I Remedial Programs and the parents of the pupils being provided these services. This insures better understanding and cooperation between home and school. Through this service it is anticipated that the parents will have a better understanding of all the remedial programs and become actively involved in the Parent Advisory Council. Pre-school activities involve identifying 3 year old preschoolers with high risks for learning and assisting the parents of these identified children with readiness - type activities in an early intervention program of home-based instruction. Screening of four year old pre-school siblings of Title I students identifies children who may have a potential learning problem. Thirty of these youngsters are placed in a Pre-Kindergarten class while their parents are provided with ten weekly sessions of developmental assistance and skills in parenting techniques.

In component three, the Pre-Kindergarten serves 30 four year old children who have siblings in the Title I Remedial Programs, and who exhibit developmental lags on the Denver Developmental Screening Test. One session is held in the morning and one in the afternoon and each extends for the full school year. The morning session services the children with the greatest need as diagnosed by the screening test. Parents of these children receive ten sessions of training in parenting techniques conducted by the Home School Liaison Specialist. The purpose of these sessions is to reinforce the skills taught in Pre-School thru individual programs; to provide in-service for parents relating to the developmental tasks of early childhood; and to assist parents in their problem solving skills.

Component four is the result of the analysis of needs done in our target schools last year. The incidence of students exhibiting an educational deficiency in the basic skill of mathematics was high. Therefore, Project SEAPORT has implemented a pilot Remedial Math Program in grades 3-8 in five target schools. Students identified in need of extensive supplementary math instruction are receiving these services from three math teachers, assisted by two paraprofessionals.

The in-service provided yearly to the entire staff for both the professional and the paraprofessionals focuses on pragmatic issues which continue to upgrade the efficiency of these program components. The coordination with the regular school curriculum is excellent. The Newport School Department conducts a supplementary remedial reading program in all elementary schools in grades 1-3 and is presently servicing approximately 150 students.

The Title I District Advisory Council (which is mandated by the Title I guidelines) has a history of conducting parental involvement in all aspects of our programs and we continue to assist parents to understand the rationale of these program components; to see specifically what these programs are attempting to do for their children and we offer our assistance in their efforts to help their child to achieve to his/her optimum potential.

Project SEAPORT has been intensely evaluated by an outside agency for the past several years. Each of the program components has clearly specified performance objectives that require assessment by means of pre and post standardized test data utilizing the SRA Achievement Series, Form I. Data collection processes and date presentations reflect student achievement impact adhering to the stipulations of the Title I Evaluation Model A1, which requires mean pre and mean post normal curve equivalent (NCE) scores. Students in the SEAPORT program attained higher post test scores than the computed anticipated score and the differences between anticipated levels and actual levels were satistically significant when computed utilizing the correlated t-ratio of the means. Recommendations and changes are specifically incorporated into the programs. By doing this, we continually up-grade the programs.

The program for the coming year is being implemented as follows: the remedial math and reading specialists work in the classrooms of the identified Title I students four days a week. This becomes a cost effective way for a supplemental program to function. The needs of these students are translated into program modification in the classroom - therefore, the classroom teacher and the specialist work as a team. The building principals, department heads and guidance personnel continue to be involved in examination of students programs to insure that program modifications have taken place in accordance with the requirements of each student's prescriptive needs. On the fifth day, the students work with the specialists in the individual building labs.

The staff of Title I has the supportive assistance of the School Committee, the Central Administration, the Director and the Department of Pupil Personnel Services, department heads, classroom teachers, and parents of students being serviced in these supplementary programs. If you request any further information please contact the Grant Programs Office, Mary Street, Newport, Rhode Island.

Senator PELL. The next witness, representing the Rhode Island Commissioner of Education, is Christopher O'Neill, who will be accompanied by Henry D'Aloisio, project manager of the basic skills project; Sister Rosalia Flaherty, consultant to non-public schools, department of education; and Dr. John Pitman, right to read director, department of education.

Incidentally, if any people in the audience are interested in having a copy of these hearings, they will be printed and you can write in for them.

Did you want to say something, sir?

VOICE FROM AUDIENCE. I don't know if you're allowed to ask a question here or not.

Senator EAGLETON. Absolutely.

VOICE FROM AUDIENCE. I am not a parent, but I am an interested citizen in Newport, and I would like to know how our percentages compare to the percentages you have there as to illiteracy.

Senator PELL. I think Mr. Williams replied to that question.

VOICE FROM AUDIENCE. I didn't quite hear that. I didn't quite get it. I thought that Newport was not mentioned in the talk.

Senator PELL. My recollection—Mr. Williams can correct me—is that we followed the national average. Is that correct?

Senator EAGLETON. They were above on verbal but below in math.

VOICE FROM AUDIENCE. But the general illiteracy of a high school graduate—what I cannot seem to understand is how 11 percent of those students can get out of high school being illiterate. How is that possible?

Senator PELL. It is, unfortunately, a fact around the United States as a whole, and basically we're not better off or no worse off. Am I correct Mr. Williams? And the purpose of this hearing is to try to reduce that 11 percent to 10 percent.

VOICE FROM AUDIENCE. The other question I did want to ask—this sort of amazes me. I think I'm the only layman in the house. [Laughter.]

It doesn't look like there are too many parents in here, and wasn't that the goal?

Senator PELL. Well, we did our best and it's Saturday. The reason for this date is a combination of factors it was originally going to be Monday, but the Pope's visit, and Yom Kippur, com-

bined to make Monday not a very good day, and that is why we made it Saturday.

VOICE FROM AUDIENCE. There is no reference to any type of drug programs in the schools, because that to me is a lot of the problem. When you get a youngster in the third year of high school and he doesn't know how many inches are in a yard, now that is pretty tough.

Senator PELL. Well, he should be getting away from the inches and the yard and going to centimeters and the meter. [Laughter.]

VOICE FROM AUDIENCE. I think part of the problem is the drug use.

Senator EAGLETON. There is no doubt that our youngsters are at least potentially exposed at an earlier age to the availability of drugs than was true 50 years ago, or maybe even 30 years ago.

To the extent that youngsters could become practitioners of that art is self-evident. That results in declining intellectual achievement attending their participation in the whole intellectual gambit. You are absolutely right, ma'am. It is a very severe problem.

When I was a prosecutor in my earlier incarnation, in my area as a prosecutor we always looked upon drugs as a black crime. That is how it was used back 20 years ago when I was a prosecutor.

We were deceiving ourselves. We were deluding ourselves in so perceiving it back then. But the drug culture knows no bounds of economic or social strata. One of the most affluent high schools in the Washington metropolitan area is a high school with a drug problem. Bethesda-Chevy Chase High School is in one of the richest counties in the United States and the incidence of drugs at that high school is marked.

Senator PELL. All right, Mr. O'Neil, welcome.

STATEMENT OF CHRISTOPHER O'NEIL, EXECUTIVE ASSISTANT TO THE COMMISSIONER, RHODE ISLAND DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, ACCOMPANIED BY HENRY D'ALOISIO, BASIC SKILLS PROJECT MANAGER, RHODE ISLAND DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION; SISTER ROSALIA FLAHERTY, CONSULTANT, NONPUBLIC SCHOOLS, RHODE ISLAND DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION; JOHN PITMAN, DIRECTOR, RIGHT TO READ PROGRAM, RHODE ISLAND DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, A PANEL

Mr. O'NEIL. Senator, thank you.

I am Chris O'Neil, the executive assistant to the commissioner, Tom Schmidt, the Rhode Island Commissioner of Education. And on his behalf and on behalf of the Rhode Island State Board of Regents, I thank you for coming to Rhode Island today to hear what Rhode Island educators and citizens have to say about both their achievements in basic skills, and our plan that we look forward to implementing for title II basic skills.

Before describing how we at the department are organizing to attack the basic skills problem, I would like to briefly introduce colleagues from the department. On my left, Mr. Henry D'Aloisio, who has just been appointed project manager of our Rhode Island State Board of Regents No. 1 priority, that is, improvement in basic skills.

On my right is Sister Rosalia Flaherty, our department's consultant to nonpublic schools, whose job it is to make sure that connections are made between the public school programs and the private schools.

And, on my far right, Dr. John Pitman, who is the director of our department's right to read program.

I hope that one of the key benefits in representing the commissioner today, will be the opportunity to rely on these very capable people as thorny questions come. My job is really to explain to you two thinqs—the first thing I would like to do is present for the written record the commissioner's more extensive remarks. These remarks include a survey of the most recent research in the area of basic skills. They highlight findings that call for individualized instruction approaches which I am sure you have heard if you have gone around the country.

Also, attached in addition, is the national research of Rhode Island's 35 planning standards for title I reading programs. We feel we have looked at the literature. We have looked at the research. We have synthesized and have 35 standards that we apply to our title I reading programs, and we are trying to apply them to all reading programs throughout the State.

In essence what these findings point to, as we connect State, Federal and local programs is this: We are looking to try to do in regular ways with the local and State tax revenues that we get to run schools, some of the special things we have been allowed to do with Federal programs, like title I. We are trying to make that transition.

The commissioner is very encouraged as he looks at individual education programs for special ed students. He is looking to the day when we have IEP's, individualized education plans, for all students.

And, again, we would be keying off an idea stimulated by the 94-142 handicap approach, trying to develop the individualized approach for every school kid, not just the handicapped kid, not just the poor kid, although those groups have needed those kinds of emphasis they have gotten from the Federal and State Governments.

Beyond the written testimony, I guess the heart of what I want to say here is, how we are organizing at the State level to help districts like Newport, who you have just heard from, in attacking the basic skills problem.

The commissioner, very recently keying off the project management techniques used so effectively by our space program in the 1960's, has developed a project management approach to basic skills.

He has appointed Mr. Henry D'Aloisio, on my left, to head that project. What that means is that Henry has been directed to coordinate from various bureaus through the department and to break down our barriers in our State department of education moving across programs that include: Title I, Title IV-C projects, the national diffusion network program, the right to read programs, which John Pitman is responsible for, and even including title V, the money used to strengthen the State department of education.

We are weaving this whole group of Federal programs together to try to really make an impact in the basic skills area.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. O'Neil, you better tell Mr. Pitman he is out of a job. We have legislated him out of business, but we are welcoming you back. We are putting new and more grandiose titles on old programs.

Mr. O'NEILL. Senator, I think that is one of the reasons that John is very pleased to be one of those persons pulled in, because the right to read effort is now part of the basic skills title.

The way we do this is as follows: We are going to develop demonstration programs with our local districts and get other schools throughout the State to adopt these successful demonstration programs. We are banking on our small size of 40 districts as an ideal kind of setup for this kind of demonstrator adapter model.

In addition, the 35 reading standards which we are submitting for the written testimony, we will apply these 35 reading standards to these reading programs.

In addition, we will provide information and training to local schools concerning proven approaches in basic skills education. The kind of programs we will look for as demonstrators will be characterized as those that are comprehensive in nature, developmentally sound, focused on actual mastery of skills in a continuous progress curriculum.

Now we know, as you said in your introductory remarks, that the commissioner does not expect—he doesn't really believe in any "quick fix" for the basic skills problem in Rhode Island. And yet, he sees this basic skills improvement project as a carefully conceived program that is going to operate for 3 years and allow sufficient time for local school districts to buy in.

It allows local school districts to voluntarily join the process, and we feel that is a valuable thing. Looking at the Rand studies and many others, it is difficult to force these programs down people's throats. So we are going to allow sufficient time for locals to get involved, and we hope to show limited yet significant progress.

And we feel that one program of this nature is better than a dozen or two dozen "flash in the pan" kinds of programs, whether they be Federal or State, that address the problem in a nonfocused way.

Finally, we recognize the basic skills experiments can only be continued if the same Federal foresight and flexibility that you have provided on a basic skills legislation continues.

And we are grateful to this subcommittee for not only having the wisdom to authorize title II basic skills, but also showing your really good intentions by appropriating an adequate amount of money so we can get off and try this experiment with the local districts.

In closing, before we get to questions, I would just like to reiterate—urge the committee to read the more extensive written remarks that Commissioner Schmidt is providing for the testimony. I think you will note that since we started this activity in 1973 with our board of regents, that our objective and the objectives of this subcommittee, the mission is the same, I believe, in the basic skills area.

I guess the most important point was how we are organized to attack basic skills, and I know that is not as exciting as listening to local school districts actually saying how they do it on the line, and I would appreciate hearing their presentations also.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much. The full text will be printed in the record. Can we go to questions, or do any of your colleagues want to respond? Or, do they have a statement of their own?

Mr. D'ALOISIO. It would probably be best to answer a few questions, but I can certainly identify with Senator Eagleton. I too have, over the years, made it a personal goal, if you will, to find out what it was that was making those programs that were effective work. I think we can handle that in questions.

Senator EAGLETON. We will go on right where you are.

What programs do you think are working? What are not? What should we scuttle? What should we enhance? Should we just leave you alone for about 5 years without retitling programs and renumbering, redoing it, or should we just let you fellows have a crack at it for years with uninterrupted peace?

Mr. D'ALOISIO. Well, I would have to go back to the commissioner's written remarks, if I could have a copy of that.

You will find in the commissioner's remarks a basis for what we have done. I think that cannot go unseen. The right to read—we have analyzed what right to read has funded over the last couple of years. We have analyzed title I after 14 years, and we have tied it in with title IV-C projects.

The Rand study bolsters what we have found and what we are going to be moving on. And, no, it is not time to lay off for 5 years. We need that continued support. But I think my message——

Senator PELL. We are not talking about laying off for 5 years. There are supposed to be changes in 5 years.

Mr. D'ALOISIO. I wouldn't speak to changes yet, if I could build my case first. I think what you will find is that it is important for the Federal Government to go back and look at what it has funded, just as we have. I think you will find on a clear analysis that you have made the answers apparent.

You have, through the Government funds and programs, mandated, in a way, a close attention to individual development of the children.

Schools, by and large, are not geared for that. They do not make that commitment to the individual—Public Law 91-142 does it clearly. Other programs, right to read and all the other Federal programs that have come by in the past 5 or 10 years, have done that. They have focused attention on the individual student. Everything that the commissioner here has said bolsters that.

In our standards studies we attempted to synthesize what the feelings were of State title I directors across the country. We surveyed them, and 51 percent of their statements indicated exactly that—that more children should be receiving the kind of individualized attention and tracking system—well, not the same tracking as the Senator was talking about before—a progress tracking on a daily basis in the classroom.

We also surveyed our title I reading specialists in the State, and there were 216 at the time. Their remarks appear in the reading standards study.

They bolster further the idea that more children deserve—and it should be guaranteed as far as I am concerned—an individualized program, not a singular program, where a student goes into a corner, but an individualized continuous progress program. That is the message of everything we are doing.

We are taking a demonstrator project—Newport is one; Cranston School Department problems reading program is the second; and to another extent Portsmouth reading program is a third. We are looking for individual school site change. We know it takes more time than a year to change the way a school addresses the reading program. That is why we made a commitment of our funds for at least 2 years. It takes a year to get comfortable with change. It takes another year to implement it. So we have used that time continuum.

Dr. PITMAN. I am concerned along the lines that Henry talked of—and he was very brief—when you try to bring about change in school systems, you are talking about an extremely difficult process, a very complex kind of thing. You are talking to a problem in terms of specific programs, materials, and the like.

And you are talking about tremendous degrees of affective things that are going on when dealing with people as to whether or not they buy into a program, or they accept the program that we have developed. There are a great many affective aspects involved in change, which are much more difficult to control.

I think there are a couple of things that we can do. The new title II regulations for a basic skills program do allow for a degree of flexibility that was not, from my point of view at least, true of many categorical programs.

That flexibility is absolutely necessary to allow a State, or school district, or whatever, to design a program that meets specific needs. I think that flexibility is important. I think that has to continue. I know how difficult that is in terms of having regulations be consistent across programs.

So, I guess that I would argue that at a time of very short resources—and I do not see them getting any better in the next 2 to 3 years—I would fully expect resources to be more scarce over the next few years.

We cannot, in my view, act as an add-on type of educational system, which we did from perhaps the late 1950's through the 1960's, through maybe as late as 1970, where you simply got money for another program.

We can't do that now. Communities have expectations that they will fund all of those services, but they will have to pay for those services now because the money is not there, or it is drying up.

So, we are coming to a time with scarce resources. We are coming to a time of high costs. I think, one, we must maintain flexibility in how we can use all of the Federal, State, and local moneys in ways that we can mix together legally but, nonetheless, bring together so that we don't duplicate programs, so that we don't fragment programs.

The title I program, for example, can, indeed, work with the regular school programs. The people who are being trained in title I are one example. Right now, once title I money is directed to students, that title I money cannot go into training teachers who are not working with those title I students. That creates a lot of problems in the effort to develop a coordinated, consistent training program across the school system.

I think we have got to work at the Federal level, and in turn, at the State level, to look for ways to maintain the integrity of the special needs and special assistance required of the various populations, but at the same time make it possible for those things to feed into a regular curriculum.

If we don't, the prospect is going to become terrible. I think Henry is right. I think there will be a time, rapidly, if for no other reason by class action suits, where average parents, kids of average ability in schools, are going to say, "If it is all right for students with the higher of the skills to have a specialized program, if it is necessary for students with the lower skills to have a specialized program, why isn't it true for the 70 percent or so in the middle?"

I think we are kidding ourselves if we don't believe that there will come a time rapidly when we are going to have to do that, or we are going to be in legal difficulty from that whole group.

In trying to summarize the whole thing, if you try to talk about improving education, we need to deliver a range of services into a unit—into a school system such as Newport.

Some of these resources come from support within the community. The core of the basic skills, I believe, always has to come from that community; however, that ends up being financed.

The State resources have got to be coordinated—and I go back to title II—there is a need for a coordinated basic skills plan, so that those resources are fit into the stage of development that is necessary in a school district, so they are not duplicating. In order for the State to do that effectively, the Federal regulations have got to assist the States as well as going into the districts, so that all of our money is coming up in ways that are cost effective and with resources that maintain flexibility so everybody is working together and not at cross purposes. That is basically my pitch.

Senator PELL. Thank you, Dr. Pitman.

Out of curiosity, how does the Rhode Island student population today compare with what it did 10 years ago? What would be the profile of it? From the viewpoint of the scores, and also, the student body itself?

Mr. D'ALOISIO. I wouldn't have the information particularly of that, but I would guess that if you go to Roger Farr's study, which was given as Senate testimony, Rhode Island would probably follow the same pattern as the rest of the country.

I think you might see, however, that there is quite a substantial population of Rhode Island children who do not speak English, and that would make a major difference in the State test scores. But other than that, I would suspect that since they are measuring on a standardized norm reference test basis, you would find probably the same thing in Rhode Island—that there is a positive difference in report cards.

Senator PELL. I would like to ask Sister Rosalia a particular question. And that is, what steps are being taken to see that the nonpublic school students are being served through the basic skills program?

Sister ROSALIA FLAHERTY. First, I would commend you, Senator Pell, because the title II basic skills does make the same provisions for participation of private school children as title I did in the past.

Senator PELL. Senator Eagleton played a very big role in that. He and I have endeavored to do that for all our education legislation as much as we possibly can, to make sure that nonpublic school children have access to as much as possible.

Sister ROSALIA FLAHERTY. In the name of private school children, I now say thank you to you also, Senator Eagleton.

You asked about opportunities for them to participate in title I—and that is where we have had most of our experience—the legislation indicates, of course, that the same criteria, or the same cutoff, will be used for children in private as in public schools.

This has tended to mean that in many instances very few children proportionately are served in private schools. When we go into a local, if all of the scores are put in one list, usually the amount of money that is allocated to that local is pretty well used up with the children in the public schools before many private school children are put into the program.

Rhode Island has a very fine record for participation of private school children. The study done recently by the regional office indicated that Rhode Island had the highest percentage of children in private schools in Federal programs.

However, because these programs are not funded to the maximum, the funds very often run out before many private school children are in the program. So my plead then, would be to do everything that you can to fund these programs to their maximum.

We are just beginning with basic skills and, of course, it will be my responsibility in this State to work very closely with Henry, and when programs are implemented in the locals, to make certain that the locals are aware of their responsibility to serve the private school children.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much.

Senator Eagleton?

Senator EAGLETON. Sister, is enrollment in Rhode Island parochial schools increasing, holding even, decreasing, or what?

Sister ROSALIA FLAHERTY. I would say it is holding even for the last year or so. There was a period from 1965 to 1967, maybe to 1975 or 1976, where it was decreasing. For the last 2 or 3 years it has been holding fairly steady.

Nineteen percent of the children in Rhode Island's schools are in private schools.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Sister. And 10 or 15 years ago there was a higher percentage?

Sister ROSALIA FLAHERTY. Yes, it was higher.

Senator PELL. Excuse me. That 19 percent, what percent of those are in general education, or kindergarten through eighth grade; what percentage would be in high school? Do you know?

Sister ROSALIA FLAHERTY. I wouldn't.

Senator PELL. Father Farley?

Father FARLEY. This year we have 25,000 total. We have 6,700 in high school, but we have about 18,900 in kindergarten to eighth grade level.

Senator PELL. What are those percentages?

Father FARLEY. Well, when the Sister says 19, she is talking about all private schools. Our Catholic parochial schools you are asking about; we have about 16 percent.

Senator PELL. Actually, I am interested in all nonpublic.

Father FARLEY. All nonpublics, about 19 percent.

Senator PELL. Nineteen percent?

Father FARLEY. Of our own, about 16 percent.

Senator PELL. And of that 19 percent, does that hold across the spectrum of education?I think it is more in the earlier grades than it is in the later grades; Am I correct?

Father FARLEY. Yes, it is not quite 3 to 1, but it is better than 2½ to 1 in the lower grades. We have 6,700 high school students.

Senator PELL. In other words, what percentage would there be of the youngsters, say, in the fifth grade or fourth grade that would be in nonpublic schools?

Father FARLEY. I could look up the study I did on that and I may have even sent one to your office, that would have some tables on that.

Senator PELL. I apologize. Refresh my memory.

Sister ROSALIA FLAHERTY. In the independent schools in Rhode Island, there would be more in secondary schools, I think, than in the elementary. In the diocesan schools, the proportion of elementary is greater than secondary.

Senator EAGLETON. I don't state this as a question to Dr. Pitman, but I think his statement is very well taken in terms of need, or a nonduplication, or a coordination, or a nonoverlap, or whatever words you use to come to that point. There are 44 Federal programs that somehow or other, directly or indirectly, deal with the basic skills, 44.

We gave some attention to title II and the basic skills section, but it is just 1 of 43 others. That much of title I has to do obviously with the basic skills. To have duplication or overlapping, and what have you, is sinful in a time of, as you say, declining availability of public funds. And we are in an era where we are going to have to do better, maybe not with less, but with no more. Duplication under circumstances such as that is a terrible waste.

I will ask Father Flaherty later on, perhaps I will ask Mr. O'Neil as well as the Commissioner, if there have been achievement comparison studies done in Rhode Island at various grade levels comparing basic skills achievement in the Rhode Island public schools, and tracking them with comparable students in a similar grade level in Rhode Island's parochial schools?

Mr. O'NEIL. Yes, there have, Senator.

Senator EAGLETON. But do they generalize as to what they reveal, if anything?

Dr. PITMAN. There has been a series of those studies that were done on the fourth grade, an analyses of basic skills—math, verbal and so on—and eighth grade. At the fourth grade it showed that there was essentially little difference between the performance of public and nonpublic schools.

At the eighth grade there were some very definite differences with the public schools doing less well than the private sector. On top of that, there were a series of studies that were done looking at non-test indicators, such things as hours of television, homework assignments, and a variety of other factors to try and determine what kinds of things had some kind of impact, and how much viewing time seemed to make a difference at one point or didn't make a difference.

I cannot give you the results of that summary off the top of my head, but all of those reports are available—both results of norm reference testing and criteria reference testing at the 17-year-old level. Nontest indicators would be available through the Department.

Senator PELL. I can't resist adding to this how this has changed. Thirty or forty years ago it might have been in reverse, if my recollection is correct. Now the private schools—the parochial schools, you are saying, are doing better than the public.

And then there is another factor here as well. The parochial schools and the nonpublic schools in general are doing a great deal more for character teaching and for developing the whole person than the public schools seem to be doing.

So these are two advantages. I think we should be very much aware of them. I think the character building is as important as the book learning. That is why private schools—like the one Kurt Hans started in Europe, and Gordonstown and other schools like that, which might not be too hard on the books but yet, the character of the kid coming out is such that you find them doing tremendously well in life afterwards—that is why these schools are successful. This is another problem that I know Senator Eagleton has heard me talk about. I am trying to figure out in my mind how we can try and achieve more character training in public schools than we do now. And I find it very hard to figure out.

Dr. PITMAN. I offer one caution, however, and that is, when you are talking about private schools, you are talking about tuition. You are talking about free selection of individuals that are going there, or at least those that can afford to go there. You are also talking about a lot of people who are not going to private schools who might like to but can't afford it.

There is a socioeconomic factor at work here, and there are education level factors here at work in these studies that I know you are both familiar with. I would be very careful about generalizing too far from the differences, particularly on the higher levels, between public and private without looking at some of these economic and demographic effects.

Senator EAGLETON. That is a very valid point. It should have been recited. One of the most interesting days we had of testimony was in the city of Chicago. We had a panel similar to this panel here. We had a black Catholic priest who was the principal of a ghetto elementary school in Chicago.

Next to him on the panel was a white public school principal from the public elementary schools, immediately adjacent to the parochial school principal that I just specified.

By the way, the starting salary for parochial school teachers in the city of Chicago is $7,000 a year. I couldn't believe that. When a

Catholic priest tells you that you have to believe it, incredible as that can be, because we pay elevator operators in the Nation's Capitol considerably in excess of $7,000 a year. But that is another day and another time, about what our priorities are in this country.

But the interesting point is, by the way, that the achievement levels of these two schools were among the best in the entire Chicago metro area.

Senator Pell has talked about character. By the way, there is obviously no tuition to the public school and a modest tuition, I don't recall the dollar amount, to the parochial school. And the word that kept coming out was "discipline". The public school was like a magnet school; that is, it wasn't just for that neighborhood, although it was all ghetto youngsters, 90 percent black, maybe 100 percent black.

But they were drawn into that school, and the parents had to sign when they were taken to this public school, a sort of pledge to make sure the youngsters allocated so much time for homework, and so on and so forth. It became a sort of contractual relationship on faith and honor. And these two schools had among the highest reading scores in the Chicago area. It was a very interesting hearing.

We can always cite the socioeconomic thing, but that word "discipline" came through. Both of these witnesses, the priest and the principal, were tough guys, and I presume ran a pretty tough ship. But it got not just rather favorable, but very favorable results.

This leaves me with two thoughts. I know during Newport's presentation you were looking for some measure of growth. I would refer you to the Cranston School department's record for achievement.

I think you will find, if you were to analyze it that there has been a steady and continuing growth over the last 5 years, that shows a shift in the population of children in need of remedial reading instruction.

I don't know what Cranston School needs.

Mr. D'ALOISIO. Cranston School is one of the districts in Rhode Island. I would refer that system to you. I thought they would be here today and they might have done a short presentation of their own.

Much like Newport can show with its title I population, Cranston can show this for its entire district. That is another model that we are using for the adaptors. And I couldn't let you leave Rhode Island without mentioning that to you. And we can get you that data if you so desire.

Dr. PITMAN. It is the third largest system in the State of Rhode Island due to the population of Cranston.

Mr. D'ALOISIO. The last thing I would leave you with is an idea of the IEP's that Chris mentioned that should be for all children. What the truth is, if you can bring to classroom teachers the kinds of support it takes to run an individualized program, you may not need IEP's as a written document.

Right now, all they are doing is serving as proof of service, and it is time consuming. If all teachers did that you wouldn't need them probably, except for the special-ed teacher.

Mr. O'NEIL. Senator, we would like to thank you for listening to us today.

Senator PELL. I have one question. How many of the schools are studying the metric system in Rhode Island, and how are they doing?

Mr. O'NEIL. We have used metric programs in our statewide conferences, where we pull all the districts together and train them in certain areas, and make certain programs available, Senator, similar to the reading programs that we have demonstrated and adapted. Metric programs have been on that menu that local school districts have chosen.

Senator PELL. Would it be a correct statement that the children in every school in our State are being exposed to the metric system?

Mr. O'NEIL. I think it would. I would appreciate if John, or Sister, who are in the districts all the time, could reinforce that. I think the metric system is going on in every elementary school in this State.

Dr. PITMAN. I can't give you the numbers in terms of the schools, but as to what we are doing in the department, there was a proposal that was developed last year in metric education. It was sent to Washington; it was not approved. We do intend to write a proposal again this year to continue the work being done in the metric programs through the National Diffusion Network, and through other things.

My understanding is that the request for a proposal is not yet out on the metric education projects. In fact that cutoff date is November 14. There was some question as to when the RFP will be out, and what the changes in regulations are. But we have got our name in and we will, indeed, submit a proposal to further the metric activities.

Senator PELL. When you do that let us know. We would like to be of whatever help we can in doing this.

As you know, I feel very strongly about this subject. The youngsters will be living in a world that will be metric 30 or 40 years from now, and should be better prepared for it.

Sister ROSALIA FLAHERTY. I can say that diocesan schools did have a workshop for all of their elementary school teachers about 2 or 3 years ago. It was a three or four session workshop, in which all the teachers were exposed to all of the methods so I would presume that they brought it back to their classrooms. The diocese did make an effort at that time.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much, indeed, Mr. O'Neil and colleagues.

[Information supplied for the record follows:]

STATE OF RHODE ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS,
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,
Providence, R.I., October 4, 1979.

Hon. CLAIBORNE PELL,
Hon. THOMAS F. EAGLETON,
U.S. Senators,
Dirksen Senate Office Building, Washington, D.C.

DEAR SENATORS PELL AND EAGLETON: I would like to thank you both for coming to Rhode Island last Saturday to hold your final basic skills hearing in Newport. You emphatically demonstrated your concern for Rhode Island students and those throughout the country by the kinds of questions you asked and your willingness to

listen carefully to the responses of Rhode Island citizens and educators. More carefully, I might add, than the Providence Journal reporter who, in my opinion decided early on to write an educators-don't-know-what-they-are-doing style article and then proceeded to force-fit the happenings of the afternoon to shape his theme. Members of my staff who provided testimony on Saturday indicated that it was their feeling that you appeared more satisfied with the hearing than the reporter.

Enclosed for your review is a copy of a Rhode Island Department of Education report which clearly delineates our state's basic skills achievement trends over the past four years. In a word, this report finds our fourth grade public school students score approximately the same as the national average, with eighth graders performing consistently below that average. We are encouraged by the gains made in the 1978–1979 school year (i.e., the last year of the four-year review). These gains indicate some improvements in dealing with our basic skills deficiencies at the eighth grade level.

Finally, I would like to reiterate something that was said on Saturday (but regretfully overlooked in the press): we are grateful for the federal programs we have such as Title I, which has some recent demonstrated successes in the basic skills area. Let me add that in Rhode Island only 27,000 students out of a total school population of 185,000 share in the benefits of our Title I programs. While it is certainly unfair to expect the federal government to fund our entire school program, it is our hope and recommendation that the federal share of educational expenditures be raised from the current eight or nine percent to the point where the federal partner's share becomes equal to the local and state contribution.

Again, thank you both for the Rhode Island hearing.

Sincerely,

THOMAS C. SCHMIDT,
Commissioner of Education.

Enclosure.

BASIC SKILLS ACHIEVEMENT: A FOUR-YEAR PERSPECTIVE

June, 1979

Prepared by
The Rhode Island Department of Education
235 Promenade Street
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46-431 O - 80 - 48

HIGHLIGHTS OF RESULTS
FOR
BASIC SKILLS ACHIEVEMENT:
A FOUR YEAR PERSPECTIVE

I. Statewide Performance (1975-76 to 1978-79):

- Fourth graders' performance consistently paralleled that of the national norm group
- Eighth graders generally scored below national norms, but showed significant improvement in 1978-79 in
  - Vocabulary and
  - Reading Comprehension

II. Selected Student and School Characteristics Related to Pupil Performance:

- Non-public school students generally receive higher test scores than public school students, particularly at grade 8
- Parent's level of education and occupation are related to student scores, with higher achievement by students reporting higher levels of parent education and occupation
- The more enriched a child's home environment, the higher the test scores are likely to be
- The greater the frequency of homework and writing assignments, the higher the test scores are likely to be
- The more positive the student's perceptions of teachers, the higher the test scores are likely to be

III. Activities Related to the Statewide Assessment Program (SAP):

- Assessment results have been communicated annually to the public, state level decision makers and professional groups
- Various studies have been conducted to examine:
  - differences in public vs. non-public school performance
  - the decline in performance from grades 4 to 8
  - changes in student achievement based upon differing levels of Title I services
  - the effects of implementing a model discipline program (pilot study)
- The current SAP approach was evaluated and a feasibility study on use of local assessment data is being conducted

- Distribution of the LPAP basic skills objectives and test items to local school districts

- Implementation of basic skills activities related to the Local Planning and Assessment Process (LPAP)

- Increased amounts of time in basic skills instruction by 9 school districts

- Development of a written sequence of skills in reading, language arts and mathematics by 25 school districts

- Completion of needs assessments by 12 school districts

- Staff development activities in the basic skills by 30 school districts

- Modification or development of new materials by 11 school districts to enhance basic skills instruction.

- Implementation of new or revised basic skills programs by 16 school districts as an outgrowth of the State Facilitator Center, Title I or Title IV programs

- Increased management and supervision of basic skills programs by 9 school districts

- Increased emphasis on assessing student achievement by 4 school districts

IV. Actions Taken in Response to "Basic Skills Problem":

- Establishment of basic skills as Number One state priority and development of a statewide plan of action

- Adoption of achievement standards in the basic skills

- Publication of school district profiles

- Preparation of 3 basic skills resource guides

V. Signs of Progress

- Statewide test scores for 1978-79 indicate:

  - an increase of 2 months in language skills for Grade 4

  - an increase of 2 months in vocabulary and reading comprehension for Grade 8

- At the local level, 19 school districts report improved student performance in one or more basic skills areas during the past one to three years.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

In 1975, the Rhode Island Board of Regents for Education adopted a Master Plan for Evaluation which, in part, called for the measurement of the achievement of Rhode Island students in basic skills. In response to this mandate, the Statewide Assessment Program (SAP) was developed. The SAP adopted a three-way approach to measurement which included norm-referenced testing (NRT), objective-referenced testing (ORT), and measures that do not involve testing (non-test information or NTI).

The norm-referenced testing approach is the only SAP component that has, during the past four years, administered the same test (Iowa Tests of Basic Skills) to students in grades four and eight using uniform sampling and testing procedures. For these reasons, it is possible to compare NRT data from one academic year with that from the other three years and to identify any statewide consistencies and changes in performance over time.

Purpose of This Report

The purpose of this report is to provide the reader with the results of NRT over the past four years, i.e., a four-year perspective. It will do this by discussing three different sets of materials: test data, student and school characteristics, and action steps taken by state and local education agencies in response to findings from the SAP. More specifically, activities designed to lessen or eliminate the "basic skills problem"* will be identified in this report.

*Because of lower than desirable performance of eighth grade students as described later on in this report, a statewide priority in basic skills and a plan of action have been established by the Board of Regents.

Chapter 2

TRENDS IN BASIC SKILLS PERFORMANCE

The systematic approach to the MMT component of SAP over the past four years makes it possible to follow trends in test scores performance over time and identify any significant changes in performance. First, overall basic skills performance over this four year period will be reviewed for both fourth and eighth graders. Second, a review of the performance of these students on the five major skills areas assessed is presented. These five areas are Language Skills, Vocabulary, Reading Comprehension, Work-Study Skills, and Mathematics. Third, basic skills results for students attending public schools will be compared to results for students attending non-public schools. Finally, a set of fourth grade student results obtained in 1975-76 will be compared to a set of test results from the same group obtained while the group was in sixth grade, in 1977-78.

This report presents results in terms of average grade equivalent scores. The *expected* levels of achievement in grade equivalents were 4.1 (four years, one month) for fourth grade and 8.1 (eight years, one month) for eighth grade, and a one month error margin for the results was set each year. Thus, in determining statewide trends, a difference in test scores of two or more months represents a significant change.

I. Total Test Performance: Fourth and Eighth Grades

Overall test scores are available for 1976-77, 1977-78, and 1978-79. During this time, total test scores (See Figure 2.1) for both grades remained stable; however, only eighth grade scores were significantly different from national norms. Overall scores for eighth graders are significantly below the level of the national norm group in all three years.

FIGURE 2.1

Grade Equivalent Scores on Today Test for
1976-77, 1977-78, and 1978-79
Grade 4 and Grade 8

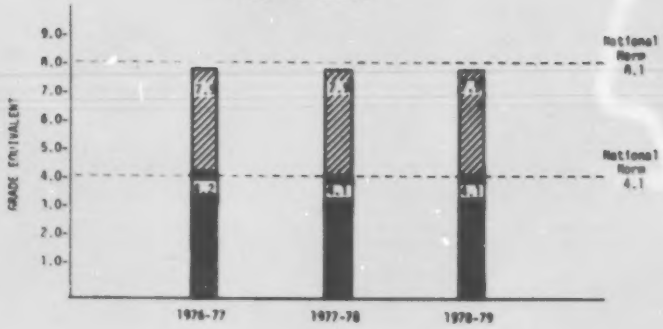
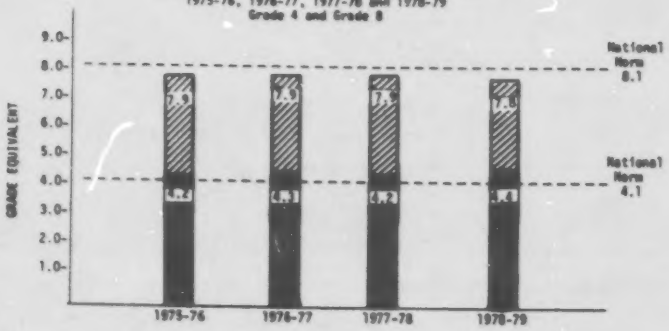


FIGURE 2.2

Grade Equivalent Scores in Language Skills for
1975-76, 1976-77, 1977-78 and 1978-79
Grade 4 and Grade 8



II. Performance in Basic Skills Areas: Fourth and Eighth Grades

In addition to total test score results, performance data are available for each of the five major skills areas of Language Skills, Vocabulary, Reading Comprehension, Work-Study Skills and Mathematics. These results show that fourth graders:

- tended to perform better than the national norm group on Language Skills (See Figure 2.2)
- performed at about the level of the national norm group on Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary, Work-Study Skills, and Mathematics (See Figures 2.3 through 2.6)

The results also indicate that eighth graders:

- consistently performed lower than their national counterparts on all skill areas (See Figures 2.2 through 2.6)
- performed highest in Mathematics (Figure 2.6) and lowest in Reading Comprehension (Figure 2.4)
- showed significantly higher performance in Vocabulary during 1978-79 (Figure 2.3) and in Reading Comprehension during 1978-79 as compared with the previous two years.
- had significantly higher scores in Work-Study Skills during 1977-78 (Figure 2.5)

III. Comparison of Performance According to Type of School

At both grade levels, non-public school students performed better than public school pupils. However, the average difference between the two types of schools over the four year period was significant only at the eighth grade (See Figure 2.7).

Eighth grade non-public school students' strongest performance was in Language, where the discrepancy between the scores of students attending the two types of schools was a full year. Differences between performance of students attending public and non-public schools was lowest in Work-Study Skills, where the non-public school pupils outperformed their public school counterparts by three months.

FIGURE 2.1

Grade Equivalent Scores in Vocabulary for
1975-76, 1976-77, 1977-78 and 1978-79
Grade 4 and Grade 8

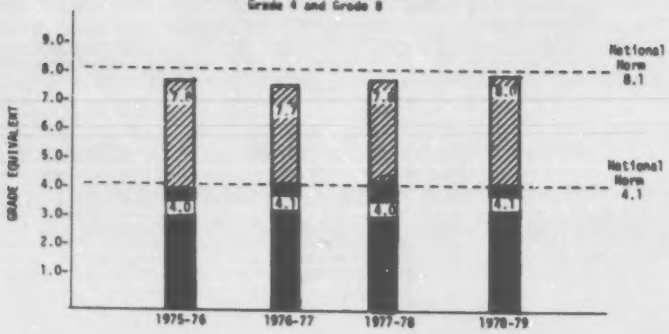


FIGURE 2.4

Grade Equivalent Scores in Reading Comprehension for
1975-76, 1976-77, 1977-78 and 1978-79
Grade 4 and Grade 8

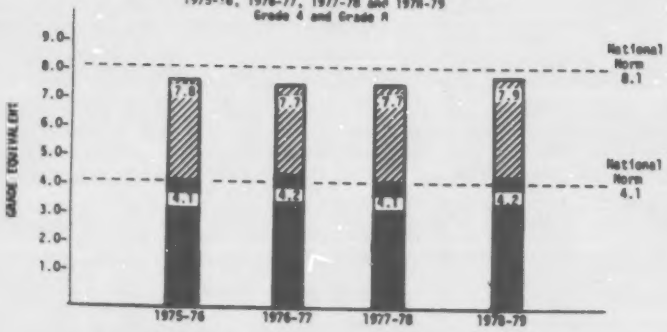


FIGURE 2.5

Grade Equivalent Scores in *Work-Study Skills* for
1975-76, 1976-77, 1977-78, and 1978-79
Grade 4 and Grade 8

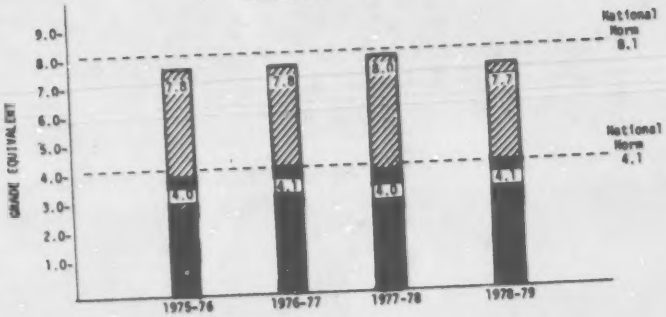


FIGURE 2.6

Grade Equivalent Scores on *Mathematics* for
1975-76, 1976-77, 1977-78, and 1978-79
Grade 4 and Grade 8

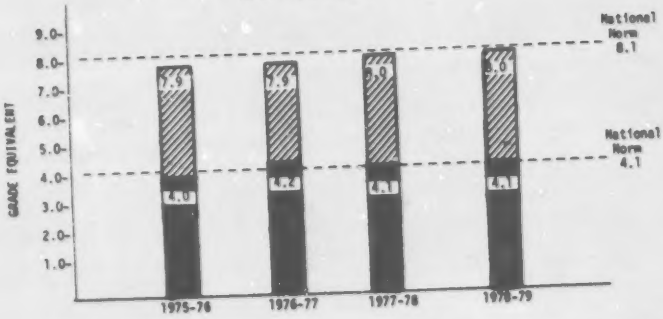


FIGURE 2.7

Average Difference* in Grade Equivalent
Months Between Public and Non-Public School
Students Over Years 1975-76 Through 1978-79
Grade 8

TEST SCORES	PUBLIC SCHOOL PERFORMANCE	NON-PUBLIC SCHOOL PERFORMANCE	DIFFERENCE
Vocabulary	7.7	8.3	.6
Reading Comprehension	7.7	8.2	.5
Language Arts	7.7	8.7	1.0
Work-Study Skills	7.8	8.1	.3
Mathematics	7.9	8.2	.3
Total Test**	7.8	8.4	.6

*Average Difference represents non-public school score minus public school score.

**Only data from years 1976-77 through 1978-79 are included in total test score.

IV. Follow-up From Fourth to Sixth Grade

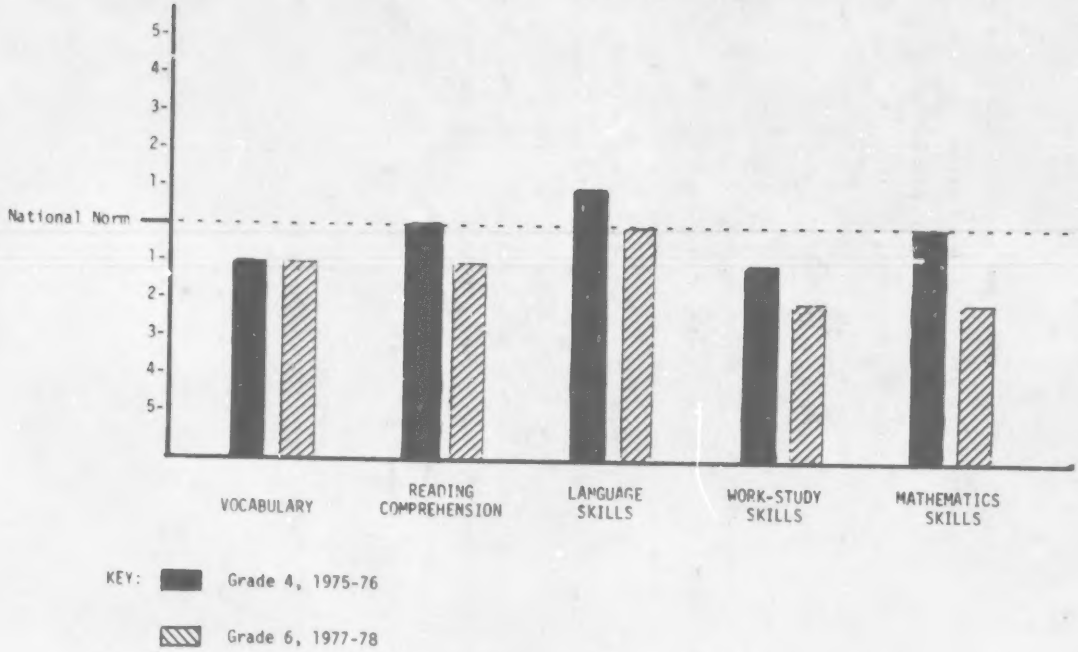
Because of the poorer performance relative to national norms of eighth graders when compared to fourth graders, students in Grade 6 were tested in 1977-78 in an attempt to find out at what grade level this decline in scores began. This sixth grade sample was selected from the same population of students tested in 1975-76 as fourth graders. Thus, it was possible to track the performance of a sample of the same group of students over a two year period.

In general, fourth grade students in 1975-76 performed slightly higher (by about one month) in the five skill areas of the test than they did two years later as sixth graders (See Figure 2.8). The results of this comparison in the five skill areas are as follows:

- Greatest decline occurred in Mathematics, with a two month decline from Grade 4 to Grade 6.
- Performance in Vocabulary remained stable from Grade 4 to Grade 6.
- Fourth grade students performed slightly higher than they did two years later as sixth graders in Reading Comprehension, Language Skills and Work-Study Skills.

Figure 2.8

Number of Months Above or Below National Norms on Major Skills Areas
Grade 4, 1975-76 and Grade 6, 1977-78



Chapter 3

CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

This chapter summarizes in two sections the findings of a questionnaire administered along with the norm-referenced tests. Students completed a questionnaire each year, and school principals completed a questionnaire during 1975-76. This information was collected to find out why test scores vary, and to identify areas on the state level that might be open to change that would improve test performance. This chapter highlights those variables in a student's background or in a school that were found to be most significant in relationship to achievement.

Student characteristics include background factors, attitudes, habits and aspirations of students, as well as characteristics of their interaction with parents. *School characteristics* are school, community and teacher factors. In reviewing these results, cause-effect inferences from these data should not be drawn. The differences observed suggest only a *relationship* between a given factor and achievement, *not* that one factor causes another to change. For example, if a study found that "bald-headed men wear hats," one would reasonably conclude that there is a *relationship* between "baldness" and "frequency of hat-wearing," but not that wearing hats causes baldness.

Student Characteristics

Higher basic skills performance on the total test was generally found among students who:

- were *females* - this result was consistent all four years
- reported a *higher socioeconomic status* - assessed through student perception of parental occupation and level of education

- had *enrichment materials in the home* - received newspapers and magazines regularly, possessed an encyclopedia or dictionary, and had higher numbers of books at home
- did *not speak a foreign language regularly* in the home
- felt *they were responsible for their own successes and failures*, rather than felt their successes and failures occurred because of other factors
- were *seldom absent* from school - this information was collected only at Grade 8
- participated in *extracurricular activities*
- had a *library card*
- spent *more time reading* and *preferred books* rather than comics as reading material
- completed *moderate amounts of homework* (Grade 4 only);
  completed *more homework per day* (Grade 8 only);
  and,
  found *homework easy* (both grades)
- watched *moderate amounts of television per day* (Grade 4 only),
  watched *lesser amounts of television per day* (Grade 8 only)

  Note: There was a steady decline in the number of hours spent watching television daily, from 1975-76 through 1977-78. In 1975-76, 42 percent of fourth graders watched more than four hours per day, but in 1977-78, only 14 percent did so. For eighth graders, the percentage watching more than four hours daily dropped from 36 percent in 1975-76 to 13 percent in 1977-78.
- wanted to *go to college*, and
  aspired to *higher status occupations*
- *often talked to their parents about school*, and
  enjoyed talking to their parents about school
- were *taken some place interesting or "fun" by their parents*
- reported *receiving no parental help with homework*

School Characteristics

Higher basic skills performance was generally found:

- in *schools with smaller enrollments*
- in *small communities*
- in *non-public schools* - this difference was significant only at Grade 8
- in schools where *teachers had a higher number of years of teaching experience*
- where students perceived their *teachers as being friendly*, rather than not friendly
- where students reported that their *teachers asked for class quiet "some of the time,"* rather than where students perceived that their teachers "rarely did so" or did so "almost all the time"
- where *teacher supportiveness* was high
- where students felt their teachers had a *clear set of rules* and *made students follow the rules*
- where students thought their *teachers spent time focusing in class on the lesson* and avoiding other topics
- where *moderate amounts of writing assignments* were given (Grade 4 only),
  where *frequent writing assignments* were given (Grade 8 only)

More detailed explanations of these findings may be found in other reports. These reports are available from the Rhode Island Department of Education, Bureau of Technical Assistance.

Chapter 4

ACTION STEPS

In addition to the test results and the discussion of characteristics related to achievement, this chapter will provide an overview of activities taking place at least partially because of findings from the SAP. Activities carried out to fulfill the objectives of the Master Plan for Evaluation, highlights of policy recommendations, and state and local basic skills activities will be discussed. An overview of steps taken to establish basic skills as a priority and a description of actions undertaken as a result of establishing that priority will be provided. Finally, signs of progress in basic skills will be highlighted. Most of the activities discussed reflect the efforts of many people, at both the state and local levels, and are carried out in conjunction with numerous projects and programs in operation throughout Rhode Island.

This chapter is organized to describe four major types of activities related to the SAP. These are:

- Communicating Assessment Findings
- Actions Taken to Carry Out Directives of the Master Plan for Evaluation
- Actions Arising from Findings of the SAP
- Signs of Progress in Attacking the Basic Skills Problem

I. Communicating Assessment Findings

Results of statewide basic skills testing have been disseminated annually to various groups through publications, slide/tape shows, and press releases. More specifically, assessment results have been presented by:

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- Distributing the following publications: Descriptive Brochures, Highlights Reports, Executive Summaries, Technical Reports.

- Providing oral presentations and slide/tape shows to the following groups: Board of Regents, superintendents, principals, teachers, professional organizations, school committees, PTA, school volunteer organizations, general public.

- Television programming to create awareness in the general public of the major findings on basic skills.

II. Actions Taken to Carry Out Directives of the Master Plan for Evaluation

The Statewide Assessment Program is basically designed to carry out the second of several major objectives of the Master Plan for Evaluation: to measure the achievement of Rhode Island students with respect to objectives established by the Board of Regents. As an outgrowth of findings in the Statewide Assessment Program, Master Plan objective four has also been addressed. Objective 4 calls for the identification of factors related to student achievement and has been fulfilled by the conduct of several major research studies:

- Study of achievement differences between grades 4 and 8 and between public and non-public schools (1975-76) - a look at possible factors contributing to the inferior performance of grade 8 students when compared to that of fourth graders and an examination of factors related to differences in achievement between students attending public vs. non-public schools.

- Study of Schools (1976-77) - an investigation of school factors related to student achievement, focusing on (1) demographic information, (2) school setting, (3) curriculum and philosophy, (4) instruction, and (5) school climate.

- Longitudinal study of disadvantaged students (1975-77) - an examination of changes in student achievement over a two-year period as a function of differing levels of Title I services.

- Discipline study (1979-80) - a pilot study, based upon the identification of discipline as a school factor related to student achievement, to design and implement a model discipline program and to assess its effectiveness.

A number of steps have also been undertaken by the SAP to both evaluate its own effectiveness and to improve its usefulness:

- Evaluation of the Statewide Assessment Program (1978) - a study including feedback from state and local decision-makers and a formal critique by assessment experts.

- Feasibility study on use of local assessment data (1979) - an investigation designed to determine the overall practicality and potential utility of gathering local test information to derive state and local trend information.

III. Actions Arising From Findings of the Statewide Assessment Program

As a result of the statewide testing program as well as information on basic skills from other sources, there is now widespread public awareness of a "basic skills problem" in Rhode Island. Specifically, performance in basic skills at the eighth grade level is lower than desired. Because of growing concern about the "basic skills problem," the Board of Regents has adopted a policy and recommendations on basic skills. As a result of attempts to address the problem, signs of progress are in evidence, both at the state and local levels.

This section describes: 1) policy actions of the Board of Regents resulting from concern about basic skills, 2) state and local actions taken to address the "basic skills problem," and 3) signs of progress in addressing the "basic skills problem."

1. Policy Action. The Board of Regents has taken the following action to address the basic skills problem:

- Improved achievement in basic skills for Grades K-8 has now been adopted as the *number one instructional priority* for the state.

- School districts have been urged to:

  - increase the amount of time they spend in basic skills instruction and

  - establish a written sequence of skills from which the most important skills for all students could be derived.

- A State Standards Council to study and recommend statewide standards of educational achievement in basic skills has been approved.

As a part of the Regents' policy and recommendations, directions for state and local action were mapped out and are reported in the following section.

2. State and Local Action. Specific activities to improve basic skills, as identified in the Regents' policy and recommendations, which have been carried out at the state level include:

- Development of a statewide plan of action for improving basic skills achievement.
- Adoption of Commissioner's recommendations concerning achievement standards in the basic skills.
- Publication of the first set of school district profiles.
- Preparation of three basic skills resource guides
  - "Speaking and Listening"
  - "Writing"
  - "Developmental Reading"
- Distribution of the LPAP basic skills objectives and items catalog to all school districts and provision of training and access to related Test Service Center.
- Exploration of the feasibility and desirability of a return to census testing.

Local level activities conducted in response to a high local interest in basic skills as well as to the Regents' policy recommendation include:

- Implementation of basic skills activities as part of LPAP
  - 11 districts identified basic skills as a local high priority need.
  - 5 districts developed a written sequence of basic skills at the local level
  - 5 districts began planning in basic skills
  - 6 districts implemented program in basic skills
  - 2 districts incorporated basic skills objectives and test items into instructional programs

- Nine districts (25%) increased time spent in basic skills instruction.
- Twenty-five districts (69%) have recently developed or adapted a written sequence of skills or otherwise increased coordination of their basic skills curricula (20 in reading, 21 in language arts, and 20 in mathematics).
- Twelve district (33%) have recently completed a needs assessment which identified either basic skills in general or a specific basic skill as a high local priority.
- Twenty-one districts (58%) have undertaken staff development focusing on basic skills and many (70%) have participated in training sponsored by the Right-to-Read program.
- Eleven districts (31%) have modified existing or purchased new materials designed to enhance basic skills instruction.
- Sixteen districts (44%) have recently implemented new or revised basic skills programs either as an outgrowth of curriculum revisions or the State Facilitator, Title I, or Title IV programs.
- Nine districts (25%) have increased management and supervision of basic skills programs, e.g., SARI Reading Management System.
- Four districts (11%) have placed additional emphasis on the assessment of student achievement.
- Five districts (14%) have hired or will hire in the fall additional support personnel for basic skills.

3. Signs of Progress in Addressing the "Basic Skills Problem." Signs of progress on the state level, based on 1978-79 NRT results, include:

- An increase of 2 months in language skills for fourth graders.
- For students in grade eight, an increase of two months in average grade equivalent scores in both vocabulary and reading comprehension.
- For eighth graders, maintenance of mathematics scores at one month below national norms, an insignificant discrepancy.

Progess on the local level is indicated by the fact that 19 LEA's (53%) report improved student performance in one or more basic skills areas during the past one to three years, as measured primarily by standardized tests.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY

In providing a perspective on four years of the SAP, this report has discussed test results, student and school characteristics, and action steps. Looking at the test results over four years has highlighted some trends in student performance. These trends indicate that fourth graders' performance is stable and approximately the same as the national average over this time period.

Eighth graders perform consistently below the national average over the four years. However, some fluctuations in grade 8 performance were found. In particular, performance in work-study skills was close to the national average in 1977-78, unlike performance in this skill area in the other three years when performance fell significantly below national norms. Also, significantly higher test scores were obtained by eighth graders in the areas of Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension during 1978-79 as compared to most of the scores in these two skills areas during the three previous years. These most recent results bring Vocabulary scores to a level similar to that of the national group and Reading Comprehension scores to a point two months below the national norm.

Factors reflecting the student's background and home environment have emerged with great consistency as bearing a significant relationship to student achievement in basic skills. Such factors as parent's level of education and occupation most notably reflect this finding. However, in addition to student background and characteristics, various school factors have been identified which show a relationship to student achievement. Examples of these include homework and writing assignments, teacher supportiveness and

school discipline. Further, students attending non-public schools in Rhode Island, as is true nationally, perform significantly higher at the eighth grade level than their public school counterparts.

As attention has been drawn to basic skills, both through the findings of the SAP as well as from information obtained by other sources, action has been directed toward this problem by state and local decisionmakers. This action includes such activities as establishment of a statewide policy which sets basic skills as the number one instructional priority, classroom implementation of model programs, and increases in the amount of time spent on basic skills instruction. The activities which are described in this report merely touch upon some of the additional efforts which have been carried out to improve the basic skills performance of Rhode Island's students.

Finally, whereas some preliminary signs of progress toward achieving the desired statewide goal of improved student performance in basic skills may be seen, there remains considerable work to be done in this area. A continued emphasis on basic skills, as called for in the Regents' policy statement on basic skills, is essential. Through its "Basic Skills Project," the state will move toward greater coordination of resources for more effective delivery and use of services to improve basic skills performance. At the local level, specific plans and projects tailored to the needs of the districts, schools and students will continue to be implemented. The early signs of progress at this point serve as a positive step in addressing the basic skills problem in Rhode Island.

Senator PELL. Our next witness is Mr. Ed McElroy, who is a responsible labor leader and colleague of mine, one whose advice I value, and I know he is giving up an afternoon of doing other things to be with us.

STATEMENT OF EDWARD McELROY, PRESIDENT, RHODE ISLAND FEDERATION OF TEACHERS

Mr. MCELROY. I would like to thank both you and Senator Eagleton for coming to Rhode Island to listen to our concerns regarding the Federal role with education on the issue of basic skills.

The need to focus and improve on the teaching of basic skills is well known and to one degree or another, universally accepted. I will not, therefore, reiterate the need nor outline why Federal emphasis on and assistance to basic skills programs is helpful. Let us assume these as given.

Instead, I would like today to call your attention to our concern about a new trend in education legislation and regulations, which is aptly demonstrated in the basic skills improvement section of title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

For whatever reasons, the rule now rather than the exception in most Federal programs is to divert sorely needed funds which traditionally went to the public schools to public and private agencies, organizations, and institutions.

This practice is evidenced not only in title II, but also in legislation for adult education, arts education, youth employment, community education, special projects, preschool partnership programs, and almost every other title under ESEA. Certainly there may be instances in which channeling some funds to agencies outside the public schools might be beneficial, yet let us look at the consequence of the present situation.

The committee, I am sure, is well aware of the economic crisis endemic to public education over the last decade. Both program and staffing have been negatively affected. While $7.5 million has been appropriated in title II for inschool basic skills programs, an astonishing $6 million will bypass the schools and go to outside agencies.

The effect of the loss of just this $6 million is considerable, but if you add these millions to those diverted from the schools through other titles under ESEA alone, the loss is significantly magnified.

Some might argue that these moneys to outside agencies should supplement and bolster the public school effort. There is absolutely no evidence that this is the case and good reason to believe the opposite. First, we must recognize that, as stated by the National Academy of Education's Committee on Testing and Basic Skills, the school is "the only social institution that has the development of cognition as its primary purpose" and "without the acquisition of the fundamental learning tools of reading, writing, and numbers, no education of value can proceed".

The schools alone have the capacity to diagnose individual students' weaknesses, pinpoint remediation needs, provide trained personnel and specially designed resources and evaluate progress.

But due to a shortage of funds, the schools are limited in their ability to take full advantage of this capability. Remediation, Senator, is particularly important, and a case in point in this regard. It

is common knowledge that remediation efforts are most successful when they are individualized.

Yet, our classrooms, as well as resource rooms, are overcrowded and the number of remedial teachers falls far short of that actually needed. Remediation in basic skills at the secondary level is minimal compared to the meeting the necessity of group learning deficiencies in basic skills before a child reaches the secondary level as emphasized in the NEA Committee on Teaching and Basic Skills statement that "learning problems need to be diagnosed in individuals at an early age and related mediation needs to be administered before children fall hopelessly behind."

Again, such efforts at the preschool and elementary level are limited by restricted school budgets. Despite the critical need for additional resources in the public schools to concentrate more time and energy on basic skills, a goal which should be our priority, title II denies $6 million to the institution specifically designed for this purpose and channels it instead to groups or agencies whose only expertise is that their personnel supposedly have mastered the basic skills themselves. Mastery of these skills, we contend, hardly qualifies one to diagnose or administer to others who lack the same.

In considering whether an amount so close to that appropriated to public schools should be given to outside agencies, the committee should consider the results of a recent study by Michael Kirst at Stamford University entitled "State Services for Children: An Exploration of Who Benefits, Who Governs."

Kirst points out that it is now a popular idea that government should give money to private "community based organizations." In studying children's social services in three States—California, Michigan, and New York—it found that in noneducational agencies providing services, State data compilation is approximately 20 years behind the state of the art for education. Basic data on services provided is not collected in any of the three States for submission to State or Federal authorities in any standard format on a recurring basis.

As AFT President Albert Shanker, has commented:

> Why spend more and more to move services from schools, where there are regular audits to other agencies where there is a question if money is targeted for those to whom it is intended?

I add to this the question, why move services from the public education system which has the testing capability, trained personnel, and special resources necessary for insuring mastery of basic skills to nonschool agencies, which, no matter how well-intentioned, can claim no expertise in teaching children.

The fact is, what Senator Eagleton was discussing in the original report, I think, deserved some comment from me as a representative of the teachers organization. Obviously, you could not deny that there have been slippages, and I think we have got to deal with the problem. Quite frankly, I don't think it is any surprise to anybody who is in the educational business that the curriculums, especially in the 1960's, got mushy.

There were reasons for that, and I think we should look at those reasons in terms of how we may make decisions for the future, as well as make improvements.

The factors in the decline that we are mentioning are obvious, but there are some other things that are not so obvious. During the period of the 1960's, we did go through a tremendous amount of upheaval in this country, and the reasons are obvious to all of us.

During that period of time, schools were under a tremendous amount of criticism. Criticism was basically that schools were too rigid, standards were not flexibile enough, there were not enough happy children coming out of schools, learning wasn't fun. Now, I am sure you can expand all of those categories to include a wide variety of other things, but basically, comments from the lay person fell into that category.

I am sure that when the pendulum began to shift, as a result of those criticisms, nobody bothered to ask whether in fact learning should be fun, or whether in fact learning could be fun all of the time, or whether in fact learning at some point in time has to be very hard work.

As the schools were criticized, some things were loosened up. And that loosening up created some problems for us, and the benefits, or the problems, of which we are still reaping.

The factor of discipline is a problem throughout the country, especially in our large city school system. I am sure that both of you have heard an enormous amount of testimony of violence in the schools, put under any term you want to put it.

We have that problem here, and probably not as great as they have in the larger cities in this country, but we do have that problem in Rhode Island in a number of our school systems.

The lack of discipline, whether it be original or obviously a home-based lack, just carries over right into the schools. And the tremendous amount of problems that we have had have basically been the loosening up in terms of the standards that we have required in the past, with also the fact that discipline has been a tremendous problem in the school, without much backing, by the way, from the people who are doing everyday work, for the people who are responsible for the administration or the schools, or, in fact, for any of the children in the nonschool environment, which would be the parent.

I am not sure that the Federal programs, however well they are designed, are going to reach these kinds of problems. We are hoping that this look at the basic skills, and the work that is being done by Mr. D'Aloisio, and others in his shop at the department of education, would cause us to concentrate more of our efforts and more of our dollars into this area for some time to come.

I just want to thank you both again for spending Saturday in Newport, although, Senator Eagleton, I might mention that you couldn't pick a finer place to spend a Saturday afternoon.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much. Your testimony goes a little outside the scope of the committee's interest in this hearing, but let me follow up on what you said for a second.

Quite frankly, I have different views. I think you know I would like to see the nonpublic schools help as much as possible in the sense that it takes a greater burden off the total tax roll. I think they do a pretty good job.

But I was struck with your figure of $6 million of title II going not to public schools but to other agencies. How does that break down?

Mr. McElroy. I believe that the research indicates that in the basic skills category, of $7 million that went to public schools, $6.5 million went to other agencies. It is not six out of seven.

Senator Pell. I am sorry; $7½ million has been appropriated in title II on an inschool basis?

Mr. McElroy. Yes.

Sentor Pell. I see. Then, another additional $6 million bypasses the schools and goes to other agencies.

Mr. McElroy. That is right. Also, I must say one other thing. Obviously I am a proponent and an advocate of public schools. We are talking about inschool programs. I am talking about public and private inschool programs as opposed to out-of-school programs. We are talking about other regions beyond schools and those other agencies.

Senator Pell. Like the right-to-read program? It is outside but is still part of the Government.

Mr. McElroy. But outside of the public schools there are other agencies, a whole host of other agencies from A to Z. They can be listed in the business of educating people. Quite honestly, they are in the business of educating people who are not too sure of precisely what is happening in any of these programs. And it is a tremendous amount of money to divert when we have no way—at least we don't know of any way—to audit what has been done in these programs.

Senator Pell. What is the average size of the school class in, say, 10th grade or 11th grade?

Mr. McElroy. Well, those averages—that is public averages, I believe—the class average in high school was 19.

Senator Pell. Do you feel that is about correct? Should it be less? Or, should the average class be greater?

Mr. McElroy. I think that we get into difficulty when we are talking about classroom size. I am glad we are not negotiating a contract, so I can be totally blunt with you. I think that most teachers will agree that it depends on precisely what you are attempting to do with any group of children in terms of how many children you can work with in a particular classroom.

There is a tremendous amount of emphasis on individualization. I think the average class runs somewhere between 45 and 55 minutes, or 40 and 50 minutes in secondary school. And we are talking about 19 as an average class size. They probably range between 15 and 28 or 30.

Then the amount of time you have available for individualization of instruction is almost nonexistent. It just can't be done.

Now, there are certain programs and certain courses and certain groups of children—I will remember that question that you asked a little while ago. I hope to get back to that some time. I think it is an important question about tracking and grouping.

There are certain groups of children who can handle course materials in groups in a very, very fine fashion. There are others who need almost one-to-one instruction. So, I think while we try to tack a label in terms of class size of being best in the elementary

schools, 15 and probably 20 at the middle school, or something like that. I don't think those numbers really are realistic. I think it depends on the task that has to be done and the individual teachers and students in that particular class.

Senator PELL. I think there are three factors involved here; the task, the difficulty of getting the receptivity of the children and the ability of the teacher to experiment with the class. All those factors have to be counted in.

Now, let me ask you a very general question. Where do you think the emphasis should be in Federal educational policy now? What do you see as the greatest weakness?

Mr. MCELROY. I applaud your efforts in the basic skills. One of the concerns I have, and I know this goes beyond the the hearing too, but I get concerned when we talk about basic skills in an exclusionary way.

There are a lot of things the schools should be doing, and some of the expansion of curriculum has been outstanding in terms of arts and music programs, various kind of cultural programs, which students in many places do not have the opportunity to participate in unless they have it through public institutions such as schools.

So, I like the emphasis on the basic skills because I think that really, if we had to guarantee anything as a business, as an educational community in this country, we should be able to guarantee that any child who has the minimum ability to do so should be able to read, write and compute when he gets out of high school.

I don't think there is any question. I don't think any educator will come before you and deny that. And if he does, he shouldn't be in the business.

Senator PELL. Speaking of computing, maybe this isn't the right place to ask, but I am sure that you know the answer. Is it true that we are getting away completely from that so-called new math and getting back to old math?

Mr. MCELROY. I understand the pendulum is swinging. I am glad I missed it. My children brought it home and I had to admit that I didn't know much about it. I had enough trouble with the regular math, but I understand the pendulum is swinging back. But I think a practitioner would better answer that.

Senator PELL. I should have asked that question of Mr. O'Neil. Are we back to the old math?

Mr. O'NEIL. From what I have read, Senator, yes, I think we are moving that way.

Senator PELL. Not yet there?

Mr. O'NEIL. No. Henry D'Aloisio, Sister Flaherty, and Dr. John Pitman are the actual program people and they know more about that. From what I read, my impression is the same as Ed McElroy. We are swinging back to the more traditional math. The new math is being a little bit discredited.

Senator PELL. Everybody agree?

Mr. MCELROY. No, some don't agree.

Senator EAGLETON. Can I ask, what is the meaning of moving back to the old math? Do you mean you are moving back to rote drill and emphasis on learning without understanding? I mean, this question sort of scares me. What is the meaning of that question, moving back from the new math to the old math?

Senator PELL. Not being an educator, I think we got into a hornet's nest here. But I am trying to understand the new math. I have a textbook on it and I don't understand it. The old math I did understand. I felt the new math was based too much on approximation and not upon exactitude. But somebody can correct me on this.

Mr. D'Aloisio?

Mr. D'ALOISIO. I would just add on that that I am not a practitioner of mathematics, but I would guess that when the new math hit, those teachers who were responsible to teach mathematics always kept some of the old math in the back pocket, and you find that through the studies that they were always giving them the tables to take home anyway.

The new math had an increased understanding to what was done before by rote. I don't think we will ever go back to the old math. I think what you will find now, the book publishers of mathematics materials are compiling what is best of the old and best of the new, and we are moving along at a good rate.

Senator PELL. Thank you. I think what you are saying really is that we are going back, but not too far back. We are not doing it by rote. However, as long as we are talking about teaching mathematics, I can't resist the impulse to say that a direct forebearer of my father invented the division sign. [Laughter.]

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. McElroy, some teachers organizations in some States, whether it is the AFT, or the NEA, or the traditional State teachers organizations, or all three, have been strenuously opposed to competency testing for various express reasons; misleading, unduly alarming, demagogic, punitive, discrediting of teachers. You hear words sometimes like this in the testimony.

Do you have any views, either individually or on behalf of the Rhode Island Federation of Teachers, as to the competency testing that is done here in Rhode Island? As I understand it, the 4th, 8th, and 11th grades, if I heard it correctly, or something approximating that.

Mr. MCELROY. Well, the AFT nationally, Senator, as well as the State of Rhode Island, has a different position than the NEA on testing. The AFT's position is that it is necessary, it does give us some answers to things. But the problem with it is the attempt by some people to place absolutes on testing.

We had tests that were in themselves discriminatory. We have a court decision now that allows black English, not only allows, but insists that black English be taught in the schools in certain parts of this country.

The question of designing tests in order to accomplish that is going to be a fight for the next 20 to 25 years. We think the testing is important. It gives us some idea of the guideposts.

I think that we have got to be careful, however. First of all, if the tests that we use are any good, as we can prove, in addition to that we have to be careful how we interpret the data once the test is given if we use as an absolute that this is better than that, that in fact, 5 years ago we were doing better on the college boards than we are doing this year without any assessment as to the population that is, in fact, taking these tests over the span of 5 or 10 years while the college boards have been going down.

To make it short and simple, testing is necessary. We support it as long as the testers are careful in terms of release of material and the interpretation of those testers.

Senator EAGLETON. That is a very valid observation. I agree 100 percent with everything you just said. You volunteered you might have a comment or two on tracking, so we will give you your time.

Mr. MCELROY. I hate to use the word "tracking" because that has all kinds of negatives. There was a Washington, D.C., court case and that sort of thing.

There are hundreds of studies and a presenter you had here today, in terms of presenting his position on tracking or on grouping of children, be it homogeneous or heterogenous, you could get an equal number of researchers to back you up.

The fact is that in many of our school systems pupils are grouped according to ability and I, quite honestly—as an individual teacher now; I am not talking about an organization that has a position on this, but as a classroom teacher—don't see anything wrong with that.

As long as we allow every child from an individual point of view to proceed at his own rate and to be able to take a full measure of the education that is offered, I don't see any problem with that at all—without calling it tracking. Thank you very much.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much indeed, Mr. McElroy, for being with us. Our next witness is Father Farley, who is Vicar of Education for the Diocese of Providence. We have worked together for some years, and originally this building belonged to his diocese.

STATEMENT OF REV. JOHN FARLEY, VICAR FOR EDUCATION, DIOCESE OF PROVIDENCE

Father FARLEY. I am happy to be here, Senator, and I am grateful to you and Senator Eagleton for listening to our point and for inviting us to come. And in the name of the diocese, we are certainly very grateful to your family for the great support that you made possible when St. Catherine's was here. So, all those nice things said, I thank you very deeply.

I would like to make a few general observations about our Catholic school work in basics before getting into some of the technicalities. One of the main reasons for that is that I really think you would be much better served—and I hope somewhere in the hearings you have been so served—by having some of the frontline classroom teachers tell you what we are doing.

I have tried upon receiving your invitation to lessen my own personal ignorance on that score by talking to some teachers and principals who are much more knowledgeable than I, as the vicar for education.

That position means that I am the bishop's representative for our Catholic schools, for our religious education, for our work with the deaf, retarded, handicapped, and for our ministers on the college campuses throughout the State. All of that comes under the vicar for education office.

Specifically on the schools, and our work on basics, I will probably make three points initially. One is that I don't think we have ever lost any commitment at all to basics. This may have been an

economic necessity forced upon us, but I think it was more a matter of commitment and of conviction.

So while there may have been some softening and what not, as were referred to by other speakers before, I think that we have been through the trying periods of 10 or 15 years ago and stayed mainly with the basics even when our schools seemed to be collapsing around us.

The second thing I would say is that we have strong parental support: we have the expectation, and we have the actual experience that our teachers can give homework and it is done. Now, I am only speaking as a classroom teacher for 25 years myself. I think any teacher, in any school, in any system, however easy or hard it might appear to be to the lay person or the outsider, a teacher who will know that there is this parental support really has a great headstart.

I would, in that connection, also note that we have a wonderfully low absenteeism. And again, I don't think it is the brilliance of our teachers, or anything of that sort. It might be some of their dedication and their hard work, but mainly, I want to credit parents. I want to credit the community around them who are at least being so supportive that the teacher can know this concentration is important and can stay in there with it.

I mentioned teaching myself. I remember a few semester exam periods where I might have had 140 to 150 papers to do when I was in Providence. Not a single retake exam. That means that nobody was absent in five or six classes when exams came around. Nobody is sure if they were taking that interest in whatever I was teaching or asking them about but I think their parents saw that they got there.

I go back to my own days as a youngster in school. I remember maybe coughing and rolling through the night and having an awful time with being sick. My mother would come in with medicine a few times and in the morning maybe the cereal in bed—you know, a rare treat—and say, "Are you feeling any better, Junior?" "Well, a little bit." "Well, if you are feeling a little better, don't you think you could get dressed and go to school?" and I don't think that is way, way back in the past. I think that there is much of that around with many of our parents. I want to credit them.

I think they make some of the attention to basics more achieveable. If any teacher in a public or private sector has something like that going, I think the teacher is challenged and I think the teacher's possibility of achieving his goals is that much enhanced.

I don't want to make any comparison between our schools and others, but I do know many, many teachers, starting with my own brother who taught 20 years in schools in Providence—I do know what they are up against and, by and large, I never faced those problems when I taught myself. And I think that should be very clearly stated for whatever you are going to do with it.

On the matter of how we may be going about it, there I don't want to get into your hornet's nest either. But the matter of drilling was brought up as possibly what you are questioning.

And not really drilling, but rote was the word. I think we are very strong on drilling, but I don't mean that constant, endless, aimless repetition in class. I think more of what you are doing in

drilling is kind of entrenching, reinforcing, and if it is done by a capable teacher, it is to lead into an added area of learning—to some new skills—a new development that you are looking for.

You can do it with something as simple as the sight words that you throw out in vocabulary. I want to use these on similar levels—I will put "ed" on, I will put "ion" on—long before I get to all the structural analysis or anything of that sort. But if I would give them a sight word, there is a note of familiarity, and I am engineering. I think every teacher is a little bit of a planner, an engineer. And in some ways, that sort of thing can be done.

I think also, when you talk about the various skills—that I am not going to run through today—I think one thing I find in many of our teachers is their ability to bring that over to the whole development of the child.

I would like to note one of the earlier witnesses who spoke of the whole affective area and the whole maturing and developmental process. Nobody mentioned—and that gives me a chance to say one thing—gross motor skills.

If you ever tried to get your grandchild—I don't have any, of course, unfortunately. [Laughter.]

But, you know, as a baby picks up a crayon and starts to draw that thing in back of you up there, you know what motor skills are. I stand in constant awe of our kindergarten and early primary teachers who bring these things out without ever demeaning the child, and bring them along and encourage them and everything like that—things such as reading skills, writing skills—they have been individually mentioned here.

One thing I think most of the teachers who I have talked to in our schools very much favor is using these in combination. In other words, you are not just over here with writing skills, or reading skills, or, I guess, what the technical experts would call "encoding" skills and "decoding" skills, or whatever.

I think they should be combined because then you are making a transfer from one type of skill to the other, and your writing becomes a continuation and a chance to reinforce the earlier reading skills, and that they are working together that way. It goes that way in math, too.

I think that we are talking about basic skills whether they be complicated to the youngster, e.g., the square root, or whether we are just talking about the decimal point, or whether we are talking in English about the use of a sentence or ways of preparing the use of the paragraph.

I think one of the things is that we use these in combination as much as we can. At least that is what I am told by the people who, I think, are our better teachers.

One last thing I would like to mention before I let you go to whatever questions you want: I think we have not mentioned enough either here today or in what literature I have seen, when we talk about basic skills. I don't think we have enough mentioned thinking skills.

If you think some of the other things are not measurable, Senator, these are even less measurable. But far more important for every level of education is the ability to get the main idea. Maybe whatever point somebody is picking out of my remarks here, or a

paragraph, or an article, the ability to generalize—which is your work so often—the ability to make judgments, you have to, we all do, these are skills and they can be taught.

What I find is a little bit of a difficulty—and I am speaking mostly of my secondary level experience—is that these skills are often shunted on to one or another teacher like, for instance, the English teacher, or perhaps the math teacher, when actually, all through the process thinking skills are important. I am not just in there to throw history facts around or get dates.

The best teachers I ever had, marvelous men and women, they said, "Hey, you can figure this out, and I want you to. I will help you, but I am not going to do it for you." I think that something like this is an internal discipline that the child brings to study as well that will help. This helps outside discipline, you know, that we have talked about many times.

I don't know what your purposes are, or what you want of me. If you are talking about some of our problems, of course, we have them, and we share them even though I may have sounded very affirmative. I want to be, period. I am a romantic.

I was talking to an elementary school teacher the other day. A delightful problem, but it is a real problem.

"John, how would you like to teach capitalization to an Oriental?" Then I had to go, "Let me have that again?" They have no such thing in their style of writing, and yet, we are bringing them to this country. We are trying to bring them in. How do you do that? Maybe the problem is much more bureaucratic and much more widespread than some of the speakers earlier mentioned.

How do you get enough money funded and everything from the people like yourselves, who are interested in quality education so that every child who needs help gets it, whether it is public or private, religious type school, on whatever level. Obviously, I am all for every kid who can get it, especially all the kids that I might be representing in some small way here.

But I would like very, very strongly to refurbish any feelings you or anybody else in your committee has in those regards. I think this is a child benefit. It is not an institutional benefit, and I was glad to hear Ed McElroy say it when you questioned him because I feel the same way he does. You are talking about the youngsters in school as the greatest possible area in which you can prove just the things that you are after.

So, I would like to thank you very much. I would like to thank our teachers for their dedication. They get a few hundred bucks less in Chicago—some of them starting out—but it's around that level. We are much the same.

I would like to thank them for the individual attention that they give to the best of their ability. How they, in a classroom, recognize so often—we have a lot of tests that we get into, and if you want to ask me about them, I will get a piece of paper that I have some notes on.

I just want, as perfectly as I can, to praise them, and to maybe add another thing. Besides teaching basic skills, they do one thing very much. They impart personal, moral, religious values, not only as things they teach, but by the integration of those values and principles in their lives. And I know that is not an exclusive virtue

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of Catholic school teachers, but, by and large, I think that is almost demanded of them.

The religious values are the major historical reasons and the continual reason that we have any schools at all. So, I would like to thank all of those people while I thank you.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much, Father Farley. I have a couple of questions here before turning it over to Senator Eagleton.

But, first, are there any Federal programs which are designed for all of our youngsters—public school and nonpublic school kids—that you believe are not reaching the nonpublic school children the way they should. And if such is the case, what do we do about them?

Father FARLEY. I don't want to answer that as if I have more knowledge or experience than someone, say, like Sister Rosalia, who, fortunately, is right in the department of education as a consultant.

But my answer to you would be that I think many of the programs that we should have we are getting some benefits from; you know, bilingual and title I.

We also are able, with complete fairness on the part of either the State educational agency, or the local educational agency, to apply for grants, like we got IV-C—if I got the right area—23 of our schools are on basic nutrition programs.

We have some of our schools in the RIF, which is Reading is Fundamental, or it is Fun—or something or other. We do have a number of programs that some of our youngsters are in. I think the problem comes with the larger LEA, which will have—well, you just heard testimony from Newport about their inability to get to some of the youngsters they would like to get to.

Facing that it is quite understandable that some of our youngsters may not be receiving—I don't mean in Newport—I am not speaking on any particular basis. I am just speaking hypothetically about larger cities.

That is a possibility because, like our own schools, more and more they have English second language students—they have reasoning degrees, whatever. Many of the problems that you have in the public sector, we share. Certainly, we don't have anywhere near the number of students in these categories.

Senator PELL. Are there any specific measures that we should take on the Federal level to be helpful to you in this regard?

Father FARLEY. Well, again, I could more informatively answer you—and, again, I would like to have the opportunity on some of the other points, too, if I could submit some material to you in writing on that.

Senator PELL. I would be delighted.

Father FARLEY. One of the things—and this isn't peculiar just to us—Public Law 94-124, and the handicapped, the special-ed thing, the funding just isn't there. And in some instances it is almost impossible for one of our kids to get a core evaluation. We are working at that, and I am sure, with the people of the State and local educational agencies we will be getting some cooperation.

But until they are appearing, we are almost dismally out of it. I am not trying to denigrate or to pick on any particular LEA. I recognize the problem, but I would like to see these youngsters—

because they are the youngsters for whom the legislation was put in—serviced if it is at all possible.

Again, it is a long-range thing, but you can keep it in the back of your mind.

On the title things, on the new title II, I would agree with the previous speakers, or witnesses, or whatever we are. I think your concern and allowance of flexibility and your inclusion of everybody is terrific. I am really delighted with your efforts and I want to thank you and anybody else that has been responsible.

Senator PELL. Well, Senator Eagleton has taken a leading role in this.

Father FARLEY. Well, hooray for Senator Eagleton and anybody else here.

Senator PELL. As was mentioned earlier, I have been very much struck by the fact that character development is greater in the nonpublic schools than in the public schools. This really is due to no fault of the public schools, but because of the limits of the Constitution in part, and the law. Do you have any other reasons why there is more of an emphasis on character development in the parochial schools than in the public schools?

Father FARLEY. That is a very difficult question to answer. I won't completely duck it, Senator, but I would like to get the caution in first. It is a little bit like comparing the proverbial oranges and bananas, and I always kind of run away from those.

I would rather say only—not why we have more, or anything like that—but I would just like to say why I think there is a better chance for us to emphasize character values, that's all.

By the way, some of this has been tested. Andrew Greeley's NORC report came out just recently on religious values, saying that students who were—this is just taking groups of Catholics, those who were students in grades K to 8, or K to 12, show higher religious values, character values, understanding changes in the church, a whole variety of things, than those who were not in those student categories.

But in character, there is just not the school, either, is there? I mean, the best teacher and the best character form I ever had was my "old man", because he told me, "You never cheat, and you are not supposed to be disrespectful to old people, and you try to do this." We had prayers taught to us at home, and we had a variety of things that were pluses and minuses before the first grade teacher I ever had got hold of me and told me to behave.

You get me going on philosophy and I am unstoppable. Sometimes I think that our general communities in this society, and that, in part, will include our legislators and statesmen like yourselves, many expect too much of the schools. Somebody brought up the drug thing back here. That is a huge social problem, and, of course, it is in the schools. And it is, to some degree, in ours.

Anybody who pretends that a thing like that isn't a social problem, or who thinks the schools can do something about it alone has a tendency to do this with any big social ill we have, whether it is desegregation or anything else.

I think you are familiar with my tirade against the IRS of last year. I opposed not the idea of integration but their reasoning that this could be done by some automatic regulations that you just

stamp the school with now. And I am going to love my fellow man just for that? No way!

Maybe I'm running away from your question. I don't mean to. But I just want to say it is very complicated, and I don't think we can expect the schools, as such—private schools, public schools, religious schools, any school—to form character, unless it has been preformed. They (schools) can support it.

Senator PELL. I appreciate that. I would add one slight correction.

Father FARLEY. All right.

Senator PELL. You referred to us as "statesmen." The definition of "statesmen" is a successful and dead politician. [Laughter.]

Father FARLEY. You are anything but dead. And I would like to be able to say that you are statesmen even while you are living. OK?

Senator EAGLETON. Father Farley, you have been an excellent witness. You are a very engaging man, and you have mentioned, and I can smile a little in referring to politicians, that we are great at generalizing. We do overgeneralize, but I will ask you one question which is a generalization, and see if it coincides with your observation as the vicar of the parochial school system of Providence.

We heard from parochial school systems in other parts of the country, and I think this would be a general summary of the record, that they are tracking better in reading skills than counterparts in the public area.

They are scoring higher in mathematics skills than counterparts in the public area. But in writing skills—again, it is not as quantifiable, and admittedly, far more subjective—but in writing skills, there is the same decline in both the parochial and the public school systems. Would you agree with that generalization that I just made, or do you think that is not the case?

Father FARLEY. The quantified or reported achievement test scores, as a matter of record from the Rhode Island Department of Education and the board of regents, if I may do so without being in error, I think they showed what the previous speaker from the State said, perhaps a slight difference on the eighth grade or fourth to eighth transitional gap there.

I do not know if writing skills were isolated or not. Maybe one of my conferees, like my former student, Chris O'Neil, might know. I don't know.

Senator EAGLETON. Were they separated?

Mr. O'NEIL. I think it was math and verbal.

Senator EAGLETON. Was writing isolated?

Mr. O'NEIL. Not per se.

Senator EAGLETON. Writing is not usually because it is so subjective.

Father FARLEY. I think that there may be less attention, say, upon the method, or to the penmanship, the esthetic aspects of writing. And in part, that may a little bit show up in the discipline of writing well, or writing the sentence well.

Senator EAGLETON. Beyond penmanship and esthetics, testimony that we had was that even in parochial schools they were getting

away from a composition a week, and teachers' time was being more called upon.

The teacher doesn't have as much time to grade compositions as before. Maybe a composition every 3 weeks. They are getting away from writing skills both in the parochial school system and in the public schools.

Father FARLEY. I was trying to direct the response—and I misunderstood you—to more basic skills, such as capitalization, use of a sentence, common punctuation—those are basic writing skills.

I don't think there has been any perceptible fall-down on that level. Quite possibly, on a secondary level, there may be less of the writing or further development of composition. I would have to check that out. I would rather not make that—I can't be sure.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much, indeed, Father Farley for being with us, and thank you for all the help you have given us in the past.

Father FARLEY. Thank you very much.

Senator PELL. If there could be quiet in the room, please. Thank you.

Welcome Ms. Mary Jane McKenna, an old friend of mine. Her husband is also a very old friend, and he is my Senator.

STATEMENT OF MARY JANE McKENNA, FORMER CHAIRPERSON, NEWPORT TITLE I PARENT ADVISORY COUNCIL

Mrs. McKENNA. It is nice to see you both again, Senator Pell.

My name is Mary Jane McKenna. And I——

Senator PELL. I think you will have to speak up.

Mrs. McKENNA. I will start again.

My name is Mary Jane McKenna. I am the former chairperson of the Title I Parent Advisory Council, and I can talk about the title I program from a parent's point of view.

Mrs. Macioci mentioned a great deal about the program, and I can only say one thing that really struck me as really important: That the cooperation of the administrators and the individual teachers with the parents has been very, very good.

That really is the thing that helps us make the program a success.

The parents have a program of their own; an educational program. We have meetings, and this year the agenda will consist of parent effectiveness training sessions which we feel will be very helpful to us.

A few years ago, some of the parents were very concerned about their pre-school children. They wondered whether or not anything could be done to prevent them from getting into a reading program, or a special program.

A program was set up to test and help pre-school children develop mentally. The program also has been extended to the junior high school and the high school because the parents once again felt that their children would be lost in high school if they didn't have the individual attention they received earlier.

I think really that is a brief statement and that is pretty much it.

Any questions?

Senator PELL. Thank you very much for coming with your views. What do you think the public schools are doing now in providing the children with basic skills? Where else would you see them moving?

Mrs. MCKENNA. I do think every effort is being made. The title I program is in reading and math, and that is where your emphasis is. I have had children go through the school system, and it seems to me now, more than ever, there has been an emphasis on the basic skills. I see it in my younger children. They are really working very hard on that.

The problem is not simply with the schools, it is with a lot of other things. And we can't expect the schools to solve them all, but I think they are really doing a good job.

Senator PELL. Good. Thank you very much.

Senator Eagleton?

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you, Mrs. McKenna.

Senator PELL. Our next witness is Mrs. Aaron Slom, who is representing her husband and the Rhode Island Association of School Committees.

STATEMENT OF MRS. AARON SLOM, REPRESENTING THE RHODE ISLAND ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL COMMITTEES

Mrs. SLOM. Good afternoon. My name is Mrs. Slom, and I am here representing my husband, Aaron Slom, who is at a meeting in Washington, D.C.

I would first like to thank this honorable group for changing the date of the hearing from Monday, which is Yom Kippur, the most important of all Jewish holy days.

For the information of Senator Eagleton, which I am sure Senator Pell knows already, Aaron is the president of the Rhode Island Association of School Committees, and a member of the board of directors of the National School Boards Association.

He is in Washington chairing a task force entitled "The Purpose of Education in the 1980's." I shall read his prepared text, and I am not really prepared for any questions.

Basic skills has become a brittle term that has risen out of the bushel basket of the critics of education. Everywhere I walk, everywhere I stop, the specter of poor education has put the blame on the beginnings.

It starts with the remarks that we need to return to the three R's, and envelops us into a cloud of all encompassing points that make the teacher, the administrator, and the school system into villains who have not prepared the proper curriculum, nor have properly prepared backgrounds to make the curriculum happen.

Notwithstanding all the detrimental comments that I have heard, there has been an almost 100-percent agreement among teachers, administrators and school committee people that the basic skills have been and are being taught.

But I have two thoughts that I will leave with you today. Our society has and is, ever changing. The demands of the world we are living in have become more complex. Our students need to know and be trained beyond the sphere that has been molded in the past. Our young people must be enticed into using more definitive ideas and encompass greater fields.

No longer can the simple mathematical trend of the last 20 years prevail. But the three R's must be in the background.

As I sit here and write this, I can see the child counting on his or her fingers, or pronouncing his or her syllables, or presenting his or her written explanations, or reciting his or her arithmetic problems. But that alone is not basic skills. We must find for ourselves a more concrete approach to our society.

I recently saw a list of items that seemed to place in the vein of my thought what is going to be needed to have our pupils prepared for the world about us. Sophistication bothers me. And it has to bother the teacher and the pupil.

What are we to prepare ourselves for? What are we going to use as limits? We must now look at the whole being, whether they be minority or majority. We must sharpen our minds and our ideas so that we can be saying that basic skills are being taught, not more rapidly, but more succinctly.

We have to have added greater dimensions to the topics. And I will refer you to the report of the State Standards Council on the Establishment of Statewide Educational Achievement Standards in Basic Skills and Minimum Competency Commission, of which I was a member. And there are copies here of the report itself, and the commissioner's report to the board of regents on the original report.

There are many items that must be placed in our thoughts, and listings that are not testable. There must be room, not only for the three R's in our basics, but mankind must also know about the arts around him. And they seem to be growing by the moment—music, drawing, architecture. Appreciation of all these moments is a necessity in our world. These are my thoughts of the situation at hand.

My second thought is perhaps more moral than educational but ties into my desires. The same people who are most critical are the same people who will not take the time and effort to aid their own children in the preparation of their lives by encouragement, and, if necessary, participation in the field of basic skills.

There is also a group of parents who are not prepared to meet the demands of any basics at all, and we must make an effort to educate, prepare and enthuse this group.

Thank you for your time, and I hope that in some manner I have aided you in your hearing.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much, Mrs. Rita Slom. My best to your husband, my good friend who is not in the room today, but working in Washington. I owe him a debt of gratitude. Thank you, Mrs. Slom.

Senator PELL. Now, we have a surprise witness, Mr. Farnsworth and then Mrs. Bradley.

STATEMENT OF THOMAS FARNSWORTH, DIRECTOR, NEW PERCEPTIONS IN EDUCATION, LTD., WARWICK, R.I.

Mr. FARNSWORTH. My name is Tom Farnsworth.

I appreciate very much the opportunity to be here. The question before the meeting is how the Federal Government might act to improve student abilities in the so-called basics—reading, writing and arithmetic.

I have heard about integration, cooperation, individualized instruction, and a number of other things. It is evident to all of us that after throwing a great deal of time and money into these problems, we still have them.

My remarks are based upon my experience of 12 years as a classroom teacher, 12 as a supervising principal, 7 as a director of the center which provides perceptual motor training for underachievers.

I believe that, in a word, this committee is addressing the problem of improving the skills of the underachievers, because, obviously, if you are an achiever, you don't lack the basic skills or any other skills.

Underachievers is a word which means what it says, and you can't say the same thing about other labels such as learning disabled.

By definition, underachievers are students of average or superior intelligence who are not performing up to their potential. Some of them fall far short of their expectancy.

Now, our position is that underachievers do not—that is, they cannot process information correctly. They fall down on the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic because they are lacking the even more basic skills such as the ability to pay attention, to see and hear correctly and to remember, to mention a few of the more common deficiencies.

I think that common sense suggests until these basic basics, so-called, are in reasonably good working order, the so-called basics that we are discussing today are not going to respond to any instruction, whether you call it traditional, open-classroom, summer camp, or something else.

The deficiencies I mentioned earlier are caused by malfunctions in the perceptual/motor system, as if they were relay switches in the brain, and not opening and closing as they should. But, most, if not all, of these deficiencies will respond to the right kind of perceptual/motor therapy, so long as there is no clearly handicapping condition or circumstance.

We call such therapy "tuning up the peceptual system." You could say that the right kind of perceptual motor training tunes up the brain and the central nervous system.

It is usually possible to accomplish this to a significant and generally satisfactory degree with typical underachievers in a matter of 60 to 100 hours.

When you finish such training, the record shows that there—and when I talk about the record, I am talking from my personal experience in the last 7 years—there is usually a clear and significant improvement in performance in the so-called basic subjects. That does not exclude other areas, such as social behavior. One of the other witnesses mentioned discipline, which is social behavior.

At the present time, Public Law 94-142 effectively prevents techniques such as ours from being brought to bear on so-called learning disabilities, or, for that matter, on other areas such as with more normal children. We tkink that this is unfortunate since we have been very successful with such students.

The fact remains, however, that now it might be a good idea for the government to pass legislation which would specifically encour-

age school administrators to venture into the field of training in basic basics.

One problem, of course, that you face is that you are a legislator and not an administrator.

I have appended some question and answer sheets with this statement which enlarge on some of the things that I have said and some background material on other areas.

If you have any questions, I will try to answer them.

Senator PELL. I have one question. Could you give me an example of one of your exercises that opens these switches?

Mr. FARNSWORTH. Yes. One of the problems is that you cannot simply take an exercise. It has to be sequenced—we have a very simple program that is very sophisticated. It has to be given in a certain sequence.

For instance, balancing—there is an extremely high correlation between poor balancing and poor reading. This is widely known and seldom used. Now you can't simply teach people to balance.

Senator PELL. You mean balance on one foot?

Mr. FARNSWORTH. Yes. And it helps if you bring the balance on one foot with your eyes closed. That is the sophisticated touch, and it makes a tremendous difference, which is why we get the results that we do in the hundred hours or less.

Senator PELL. What you are saying is that if you improve your physical balance you also open some of these switches?

Mr. FARNSWORTH. Absolutely. Everything that we do, from taking a drink of water to lighting a cigarette, to driving in traffic, to writing a composition—everything we do is functionally dictated by the brain.

If the brain was all out of tune, obviously, you would have trouble paying attention, remembering what you had intended to do, stopping when you should, which is why most delinquents get into trouble, they don't know when to stop. They don't know when the end should come.

We are talking about the most complicated computer we can imagine, which is the human being, obviously.

Senator EAGLETON. Mr. Farnsworth, I take it that the students that you deal with are students referred to you and you work with them on a fee basis.

Mr. FARNSWORTH. Yes at the present time, Senator, I am running a basic school for my bread and butter.

Senator PELL. You did say you are nonprofit?

Mr. FARNSWORTH. Yes. This new perception in Education which I also speak for is a nonprofit organization. It is organized expressly to serve institutions and other groups which might like some help.

The problem is that everyone wants progress, but very few people want change. Well, this idea that seems beyond human capability, like any other new idea, it is a little hard to gain acceptance for. It has always been that way.

Senator EAGLETON. Yes, I think that is true. But you work with underachieving youngsters who are not keeping abreast of the class in their reading test scores, or——

Mr. FARNSWORTH. I have, Senator—I am sorry, I didn't mean to tread on your last few words. I have all kinds of children, some of whom are being diagnosed as having minimal brain damage, or

learning disabilities, words which we refuse to use because they are so inaccurate, and subject to discussion and interpretation.

We take children who are average or above average in intelligence, but some of whom have perhaps IQ's in the high 70's or 80's, and we literally change their functioning—their ability to work closer to grade level, and in many cases it is higher than this.

In other words, we feel the problem lies not in the way the instruction is given, pretty much, because you are always going to have good teachers and poor teachers.

What we are doing is taking what I think is the unique position that the learning mechanism, can be improved. And this awaits widespread demonstration and practice.

Senator EAGLETON. Do you and those who work with you work with these youngsters on a one-to-one basis, or in small groups?

Mr. FARNSWORTH. No. In small groups. This country cannot afford one-to-one instruction, even if it was the answer, which it clearly is not. I have many people coming to me who have had one-to-one instruction for a long period of time. Sometimes it works, or appears to work, for at least the present, but some of them don't have long-lasting results. All of this is on the record.

If any of these techniques really work—if they were efficacious, you would not be hearing the testimony that you have heard today. The record is pretty clear.

The results have been most unsatisfactory, even after most expensive, most time consuming effort, and the reality which I bring up in brief detail in my sheets there, it is there for all to see.

A good tutor who gets rewards gets excited about it, and they are very sensitive when they are reminded that this is not the answer for children who are underachievers; that is, not reading, doing arithmetic, and doing other things.

The child is incapable because he is out of focus, if you will, and the answer to the problem is bringing his system into focus, and it can be done as I described here, by my personal experiences, working with typical youngsters. We are not talking about the atypical child.

Senator EAGLETON. Are these techniques and methods that you developed——

Mr. FARNSWORTH. No.

Senator EAGLETON [continuing]. When you worked as a classroom teacher?

Mr. FARNSWORTH. No. I could take a qood classroom teacher—a strong classroom teacher—and train her without any prior education, no special education, in a matter of weeks, to do what I can do. This is a capability which I have, and it is there for anyone who wants it.

Senator EAGLETON. Very good. Thank you, sir.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much. Your statement, questions and answers and material will be inserted into the record if there is no objection.

[The prepared statement of Mr. Farnsworth and the material referred to follow:]

NEW PERCEPTIONS IN EDUCATION, LTD.

Post Office Box 54, Warwick, Rhode Island 02887 (401) 738 4439 / Res: 737-9264

Thomas Farnsworth Director

September 29, 1979

STATEMENT given before the Senate Education Subcommittee
Pell School, Newport, R.I.

Gentlemen: the question before this meeting is how the Federal government might improve students' abilities in the so-called "basics:" reading, writing and arithmetic.

My remarks are based upon my experience of 12 years as a classroom teacher, 12 as a supervising principal, and seven as director of a center which provides perceptual/motor training for underachievers. I believe that, in a word, the Committee is addressing the problem of improving the skills of underachievers. Underachievers is a word which means what it says. This cannot be said of other labels such as learning disabled.

Underachievers, by definition, are students of average or superior intelligence who are not performing to their potential. Some fall far short of expectancy.

Our position is that underachievers do not - cannot - process information correctly. They fall down in the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic because they are lacking in the even more basic skills such as the ability to pay attention, to see and hear correctly, and to remember, to mention a few of the more common deficiencies.

Common sense suggests that until these "basic basics" are in reasonably good working order, the so-called basics are not going to respond to instruction, whether it is called traditional, the open classroom, tutoring, summer camp, or something else.

The deficiencies I mentioned earlier are caused by malfunctions in the perceptual/motor system. Most, if not all, of them will respond to the right kind of perceptual/motor therapy, so long as there is no clearly handicapping condition or circumstance.

We call such therapy tuning up the perceptual system. You could say that the right kind of perceptual/motor training

"tunes up" the brain and the central nervous system. It is usually possible to accomplish this to a significant and generally satisfactory degree with typical underachievers in a matter of 60 to 120 hours. This assumes classes of eight to 10 meeting for two hours a week.

When such training has been completed, the record shows that there is usually a clear and significant improvement in performance in the so-called basic subjects, not to mention other areas, including social behavior.

PL 94-142 effectively prevents techniques such as ours from being brought to bear on so-called learning disabilities. This is unfortunate, in our view, since we have been singularly successful with such students. Since the fact remains, however, it might now be a good idea for the government to pass legislation which would specifically encourage school administrators to venture into the field of training in the "basic basics."

I have appended some "Question and Answer" sheets which enlarge on some of my statements and some background material on other related areas. I thank you for the opportunity to appear before you this afternoon.

Dr. Fai el's statement is most significant. It points to the root cause of underachieving. When we attack this single cause, complex as it is, we can look for many, varied improvements since it is the person's total way of functioning which is different.

ACHIEVEMENT CENTERS OF NEW ENGLAND, LTD.

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Dr. Harris C. Faigel, director of Adolescent Medicine at Kennedy Memorial Hospital for Children, Brighton, presented an invited paper, "Learning Disabilities in Adolescence," before the joint meeting of the Society for Adolescent Medicine and the Medical Officers of Schools Association, July 30 in Coventry, England. From England, Dr. Faigel traveled to Helsinki, Finland, where he presented a second paper, "Perceptual Disabilities in Delinquent Adolescent Boys," before the First International Symposium for Adolescent Medicine on Aug. 5.

According to Faigel's presentations, some 10 to 15 percent of all school children have a learning disability. After infectious disease, such disabilities are the most common group of problems in the school age population. Like color blindness, perceptual disabilities are silent and invisible until the demands of schooling bring them to the surface. Children who have normal range or even superior intelligence are unable to learn because their brains are unable to process, differentiate and associate the information being received by their eyes and ears.

Some children with one type of visual association problem, for example, may read words and letters backwards or upside down, so that "saw" becomes "was." A child with one type of auditory problem might confuse similar sounds, so that "the cross I bear" is mistaken for "the cross-eyed bear."

Dr. Faigel illustrated the two general causes of learning disabilities by comparing the brain to an electronic system.

"The brain is like an electronic maze, full of switches and circuits or systems and cross connections between those systems. Not all of these circuits or connections are present at birth, some will appear later.

Dr. Harris C. Faigel

"If a system or its interconnections are needed before they are ready, the total electronic maze will grind to a halt, unable to progress any further."

"Some children inherit basic biorhythms which, while still within the normal range, are slower than those of the general population. Such children take longer to attain developmental skills like walking, talking and balancing."

"Unfortunately, our schools are rarely able to meet the time schedule of these 'late bloomers.' School age is required by law, and the child's brain circuits are overloaded with sensory information they are not ready to process."

Faigel further illustrated that, "In addition, the maze of the brain is very sensitive to outside damage. There are no fuses. Short circuits, lightening strikes and the like can permanently disrupt the delicate balance of one or more systems or the connections between, forever depriving the organism of those damaged functions."

These "short circuits", or brain damage, are often found in children with a medical history of prematurity, pre-natal problems, difficult delivery, or head injury or infection after birth," he said.

For reasons not understood fully, learning disabilities are four to six times more common in boys. Perhaps this is because child rearing practices for girls are more likely to discourage aggressive acting out behavior which could bring the problem to someone's attention.

Whatever the specific cause or type of perceptual disability, the common result is an inability to learn and achieve in school by the usual teaching methods.

Unhappily, Dr. Faigel noted, most schools do not identify these children until they have been in school for a while, failed for a while, and developed emotional reactions for a while.

"If a child not learning daydreams, fidgets, fools around and becomes the black sheep of the class in an early grade, his chances of being noticed and receiving help are better! Others who are more gentle or bright enough to hide the disability can often go undetected."

"These are the children whose problems are magnified in adolescence. At age 12 or 14, they can no longer handle the burden of the learning disability on top of the physical and emotional changes of adolescence."

"Filled with horror of continued failure they dislike school intensely. They can obtain no satisfaction from their school work, and often have a diminished sense of their own worth. They may become truant, rebellious and resentful and sometimes delinquent."

Faigel's study of 12 teenaged boys referred to Kennedy Memorial by the Suffolk County District Court juvenile clinic points out the link between perceptual disabilities and antisocial behavior. Only two of the boys tested had no evidence of perceptual handicaps. Both came from unstable homes and had long histories of behavioral problems beginning in early childhood. The other 10 boys had not been troublesome as pre-schoolers. However, once they entered school their academic achievement was poor. After four or five years of this failure, they became so discouraged, disheartened and angry that their behaviour deteriorated. Eventually, they came to the attention of the court.

All 10 of the boys showed evidence of multiple perceptual disabilities interfering with normal scholastic achievement. All of the boys had developed a concept of themselves as damaged and incompetent and all were angry at their parents' inability to understand them and the schools' inability to recognize the problem and to help.

Faigel suggested that helping an adolescent with a learning disability demands a coordinated, cooperative effort of support and rehabilitation by the patient, physician, therapists, family, teachers, peers, counselors and social contacts. For the young person before the court, it means understanding by the judges, court officers and probation officer as well.

Academic help can come too late for some teenagers, who should be encouraged to enter vocational training programs to take advantage of the abilities they have. The best possible remedy, however, will come when learning disabilities are found and treated in early childhood.

"Otherwise, the result may be socially deviant delinquent behavior," Faigel said.

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* This is the "KEY" to many, if not most, learning and behavioral problems. This fact explains why so much remedial teaching and tutoring results in disappointment. True success is likely only when therapy is directed at the "root cause" of the problem.

Reprinted as a public service; permission granted by Dr. Faigel.

This check list has several uses:

1. It makes it possible for a parent or a teacher to assess a student or for an adult to assess himself.

2. When the symptoms disappear or are much improved, we have probable success.

This statement... is based upon our high rate of success over a seven year period.

3. Except for the emphasis on reading and phonics, we do not attack any of these "symptoms" directly. On the other hand, we assure and expect that most, if not all, symptoms that exist as a problem at the start of training will disappear or significantly improve after 30 to 50 lessons (60 to 100 hours).

Diagnostic Check List

(May be used by teacher or parent. Make two checks if the item is especially evident.)

Name _____

Date _____

1. Poor reading comprehension	( )	21. Stops in middle of game	( )
2. Lacks confidence	( )	22. Throws temper tantrums	( )
3. Poor handwriting	( )	23. Impatient	( )
4. Letter or numeral reversals	( )	24. Sensitive	( )
5. Overactive	( )	25. Impulsive	( )
6. Talks too much	( )	26. Moody	( )
7. Appears clumsy	( )	27. Difficulty concentrating	( )
8. Restless & fidgety	( )	28. Follows directions poorly	( )
9. Unpredictable	( )	29. Bites nails	( )
10. Defiant/hard to discipline	( )	30. Daydreams	( )
11. Hard to get to bed	( )	31. Fights with other children	( )
12. Irritable	( )	32. Appears immature	( )
13. Reckless	( )	33. Excitable	( )
14. Unpopular with friends	( )	34. Disturbing to others	( )
15. Slow in completing work	( )	35. Destructive	( )
16. Selfish	( )	36. Has nightmares	( )
17. Easily frustrated	( )	37. Lies	( )
18. Leaves projects incomplete	( )	38. Short attention span	( )
19. Is accident prone	( )	39. Teases	( )
20. Bed wets — Yes	( )	40. Hard on toys, clothes	( )

Comment: _____

If a student has any of the "soft symptoms" listed and there is any evidence of underachieving in school or everyday life, a screening is in order. Only such a diagnosis will determine whether there is a problem that needs special help.

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NEW PERCEPTIONS IN EDUCATION, LTD.

Post Office Box 54, Warwick, Rhode Island 02887 (401) 738 4439 / Res. 737 9264

Thomas Farnsworth Director

Our Perceptual/Motor Program - Questions and Answers

Q. How would you sum up your program?

A. We "tune up" or train the brain. As a result people can be made to function closer to their true potential.

We do this rather routinely: the average student needs 30 to 50 lessons or 60 to 100 hours.

The program is a complete package. Activities are rather simple in appearance but very sophisticated at the same time. (Simplicity is the ultimate sophistication.) They are comparatively easy for any above average teacher to learn. No special background is required.

Results are evident to any reasonable observer.

Q. Who are you?

A. I've had 24 years in public education, half that spent as a school principal. So I've had lots of time in the trenches, so to speak...I know what the mud is like. And for the last six and a half years I've been operating the Achievement Center in Warwick. When I talk about learning problems I'm speaking from personal experience and not from theory.

Q. Why do you call this the "biggest story of this decade in education?"

A. Consider: we have always had the task/student relationship with the teacher as the go-between. Whenever there was a problem we have changed either the task or the teaching. (Specialized teacher, smaller classes, tutoring, "better materials," etc.) Now we come along with a different approach, saying that we can improve (modify or change) the manner in which people learn. That is, teach students how to learn. We might call this training the brain. Most people in the field believe that this is not possible.

Q. Who are your students?

A. We work with underachievers of all ages from six to 26, unlike others who say little or nothing can be done after age 10 or 12. We always screen first to find evidence of perceptual deficits. But this takes only 15-20 minutes. Sometimes I'm reasonably sure in just one or two minutes that I'm looking at what I call "my kind of student." This is someone of average or above intelligence who is not "making it" and whom I believe with confidence that I can help.

Q. Has this to do with learning disabilities?

A. I'm sure many of my students have what others call learning disabilities. But we avoid the label because no one knows what a learning disability is.* Furthermore, the only generally accepted criteria for learning disability is that the student be performing about two years below capacity when there is no evidence of a handicapping condition or circumstance.* And this is so easy to determine that any teacher and most parents can make the judgment. (* Federal Register, Nov. 29, 1976, P. 52404, Col 3.)

Q. What does your program consist of?

A. A simple, yet sophisticated, sequence of exercises make up almost all of it.

1. Because they are comparatively simple it is easy to train teachers to use them.

2. Because they are sophisticated and sequencial, you'll have erratic and disappointing results if you don't use them as intended.

3. And there is the matter of teaching style. We train our staff on the job in this and it does make a difference.

Q. What are your results?

A. This is difficult because there are no absolutes-measureables - in the field. Since no one knows what a learning disability is, how can we know when it has been corrected?

On the other hand, there is much agreement on symptoms and we can use these for our criteria. If the symptoms go, the problem is probably also gone. It is interesting that much medical practice is conducted along these lines but we have met much criticism because we followed this reasoning.

Q. Why does your program work? Won't remedial reading instruction, tutoring, or an IEP (Individualized Education Program) do the job?

A. Our therapy works, we believe, because it attacks the root cause of the problem directly. (Refer to the article on Dr. Faigel.) The root cause of many, if not most, learning and

behavioral problems is perceptual deficits. This is why so many of our students have difficulty remembering, comprehending, or paying attention. Most other efforts are directed at the symptom instead of the cause.

Q. How do you handle the list of "symptoms?"

A. First, it sometimes provides the only evidence that a problem exists. For example, brain damage is very difficult to establish. (And, even if a brain wave shows damage is present, where is the therapy?) Many parents come to me knowing their child has a problem but the experts tell them there is none.

Second, it is useful in measuring progress. Three items on the list have special interest:

1. Confidence. There is general agreement that students with learning problems almost always have a poor self image. Yet, if there is one characteristic that we have virtually 100% success in improving, this would be it.

2. Immaturity. A good umbrella label. Most of us show some of the symptoms on the list to some degree. A problem exists only if the symptom is evident enough to impair our performance -- and to that extent we are immature. Our program speeds up your growing up.

3. Bed wetting. I must mention this because it is pretty much an absolute and we have had dramatic results with it. I don't know of anyone who can expect success with adolescents and preadolescents who still wet the bed. The record shows that we do have success. Great success. Still, we give the problem no special attention and assume it will disappear in less than nine months.

Q. What is the most important aspect of your program?

A. That is difficult to say. Several seem equally important.

1. It works. By that I mean that we can check off any or all of the symptoms on the check list of 40 and expect to have significant improvement in all or almost all of them in a relatively short time, meaning 80 to 100 hours, sometimes less. This would seem important at any price.

2. But, at the same time, our program would be relatively inexpensive. One teacher with two aides could service from 80 to 100 students per week with our program -- and his salary is probably already in the budget. Generally we're talking about giving therapy or training to these students for just one year. We're talking about costs in nickles and dimes instead of dollars. All the teacher needs is training in our methods.

Q. Do you have any problems?

A. Certainly:

1. I am extremely confident. The record makes this possible. However, some people see this as arrogance.

2. We are intense in our committment. We're engaged, we feel in a war on behalf of those who have difficulty coping. Many others tend to see their role as one of providing help, such as tutoring. We are offering a "tune up," if you will, which is another thing entirely. We feel an urgency about this because every day the learning disabled child falls farther and farther behind.

Our boldness in both these areas turns some people off.

3. Professionals constantly ask for our data. As I've already explained there are almost no absolutes, few hard criteria. Even reading performance may vary widely if you compare tests with daily work. And we have seen IQ scores jump 20 to 50 points during training. We have also had students do rather poorly in the program and at the same time make fine gains in home and school life. This is most satisfactory as this is what we seek. We should never lose our common sense.

Some people are in the business of collecting statistics. These can be a snare and a delusion. The only question is: is the individual coping better...is performance improved? In answering this we have to use what Margaret Mead called "disciplined subjectivity."

Q. You've referred to yourself as fortunate.

A. Immensely so. At 57 I am well into a new career with prospects that are mind boggling if a fraction of what I say is true. Aside from this there is the excitement of successfully doing things that have never been done before, or have been done only on a tentative or limited scale. It is an exhilarating feeling to be first, or one of the first, on the mountain.

Q. What do you see as a future for the program?

A. What we have is in some ways a complete package - like a franchised hamburger stand. As a matter of fact, I'm in a position to franchise people who might wish to have their own Centers. But what I'd really like to do is to offer our methods to school systems or other institutions. I've already developed the concepts so that this could be done without upsetting present practices too much and the expense involved would be minimal. Schools already have the necessary people. The only thing lacking would be our lesson plans, training in our methods, and enough consultation to maintain a smooth, successful operation. Some day we'll have an invitation to move on this.

Q. What is a ROMLAD?

A. This is shorthand for Run-of-the-mill Learning Disability. We specialize in people who have these. Such people are average or above in intelligence but they are not performing to expectations. Usually you cannot tell from looking that anything is lacking. But mothers and perceptive friends know.

Q. What do you mean when you speak of coming to grips with reality?

A. We feel that at present others in the field are putting too much emphasis on developing and exchanging information which has a questionable foundation. Putting it another way they are looking for answers in the wrong places.

The realities, the hard facts, are that present programs are not bringing about the desired, needed results. Successes are limited and erratic...and expensive. There is much confusion and contradiction about. The public is being asked to fund hundreds if not thousands of experts - not to mention programs by and for these experts which are not producing the kinds of results that we must have. Actually, the biggest dollar item in the Federal budget involves aid to the handicapped, I believe.

In contrast we are talking about an approach which promises results now. We are talking about results that parents - the parties most concerned - can see. And we are talking about doing this in months rather than years and for dimes, not dollars. We'd like to borrow the old IBM slogan: "Not just information ....reality."

Q. How does your approach differ from others?

A. For the most part others try to help students, but while doing so they use existing pathways to, from, and in the brain. We aim to repair deficiencies in the pathways. This means that our students see and hear more accurately, they differentiate (process) this input more appropriately, and they respond more appropriately. In everyday language they have learned to pay attention, to think clearly, and to control their impulses. These are our basic goals, plus one more: to read better.

Quite simply, the inability to do one or more of these things is responsible for much of the failure we see around us - and not just in schools. These may seem to be very simple and ordinary points, but, taken together, they tell us how we function. And when our people begin to do better in these basic functions, we often have dramatic, impressive results.

Young people today have an expression that sums all this up: "I have to get my head together."

Q. Can you apply this to the school situation?

A. We are offering therapy in basic functioning. Until a student

can do all three of the things that I mentioned (take in information, to differentiate, and to respond) progress with any teaching method is likely to be slow. And that includes tutoring. By the same reasoning, once we have taught the student how to learn, any method (and any teacher) will be more successful. We can make "regular teaching" easier and more successful.

Q. Then you do put emphasis on reading?

A. Yes, this is the only academic area that we work on specifically, even though our students tend to gain in all areas. We have a very powerful reading/phonics program. We've seen students of all ages respond to this when "1 to 1" tutoring may have produced little progress,

Q. You said earlier that you can sometimes tell in a few minutes whether a student has perceptual deficits.

A. Two examples: there is a high correlation between poor balancing and poor reading. Also about 35-40% of my students have what we call mixed dominance - they may be right handed and left eyed. However, you are trapped if you attack deficits like this in isolation. We must keep in mind that we are working with and trying to repair a total perceptual network. So the therapy must be unified, directed at the whole. (Demonstrating these techniques is easy.)

Q. What is "New Perceptions in Education?"

A. The Achievement Centers of New England, Ltd. is the name of the service that I offer directly to those who wish to have help for themselves. New Perceptions is a non-profit corporation created to provide consulting and training services to communities and institutions.

Q. Does anyone else use the same program?

A. There are half a dozen Centers like mine around the country. All have experienced approximately the same successes and all the directors have been practicing about the same length of time.

Q. Any other comments?

A. Eli Whitney is remembered for the cotton gin. He is less well known for discovering a process which may be even more important. That is making things (in his case guns) with interchangeable parts. This made possible the assembly line and mass production. A big advantage of our approach is that in a somewhat similar way we are institutionalizing the delivery of service to meet the needs of the individual... to "accelerate his growing up," whatever his age. Our group technique works. It is a practicable answer, one for which this country has the resources in money and talent. We could start now.

Senator PELL. Our next and final witness is Miss Bradley.

STATEMENT OF ROSE BRADLEY, READING SUPERVISOR, ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYSTEM, EAST PROVIDENCE, R.I.

Miss BRADLEY. I am Rose Bradley. I am reading supervisor of the elementary school system in East Providence, R.I.

I came here today to listen. A few minutes ago, I believe, my name was recommended and I was asked to say a few works.

Seeing you gentlemen for the last few years on television, I realize that to be on the other side of this table, usually means trouble.

So if I seem nervous, I am.

Briefly, my past experience. I am in my 26th year in education. I have been a primary teacher, a reading supervisor, I teach at the college level, have been an elementary principal and an early childhood specialist for the State department of education.

My concern at this time, as it has been over the years, is for the classroom teacher. Presently, I feel the tail is wagging the dog. I think we have excellent title I programs, special education programs, bilingual programs, and ESL programs.

However I see the classroom teacher trying to teach while getting input from all the specialists. When the children leave the classroom several times during the day, and return, the teacher is supposed to weave the thread of special programs into the regular educational program.

I am very concerned that over the years, we have fragmentation of the specialist program and fragmentation of the programs that they supplement.

I am concerned that we have gone through the 1950's, then the 1960's, and then the 1970's, while the pendulum swings back and forth, and we continue to throw the baby out with the bath water.

I am concerned that right now I see our classroom teachers dying on the vine because nothing is coming along in the way of instructional techniques that is going in to the classroom and showing teachers how to improve their teaching.

By doing so, the cost effectiveness would be minimum don't buy a program, but teach time and time management techniques not a lot of checklists, look at the curriculum, look at what a child must know and have a management system which organizes the information. Learning must be consistent. A child will learn by doing, but he/she can not learn in a fragmented way so that no one knows what the next person is teaching the child.

I completely agree that there should be exit skills at the end of third grade to intermediate at the, middle school and then again at the high school.

But, my main concern is to bring structure back to the classroom, to bring a method by which discipline is taught through the structure of the curriculum.

We teach writing skills. I heard you both mention writing and ask what was happening. Stop and reflect that the first 5 years of a child's elementary education is spent writing—on ditto sheets, or workbook pages, and never writing a full sentence or writing them once or twice a week when they are doing sentence development in English.

Many times children are asked to complete a sentence with a given word and a blank where the room or space for the word is for four letters, and the child has to squeeze six to eight letters. Research has shown that many of the Catholic schools and parochial schools did do better in sentence formation because they couldn't afford workbooks. The youngsters had to copy the full sentence.

My other concern is concerns character development that you mentioned earlier. And I have to side with Mrs. McKenna. It is a total problem. We belong to a disposable generation; we never return anything, we use something and we throw it out. There is no caring or responsibility. There is no holding of doors, there are no manners. There must be a personal respect for yourself before you can have it for others.

Maybe it is not a point, but it is something that is particular to me. And that is, if teachers dress in Levis and loafers don't have respect for the profession themselves, how can a youngster have it for the teachers or for each other?

I know I have gone off the issue, but I think all of this reflects basic skills.

You have to do something to help the classroom teacher become a better teacher. Right now, all the funds, as I said earlier, are going to title I. Special education, bilingual, ESL. Granted, these teachers are superb, but the classroom teachers—to sum up my remarks lack confidence and there is nobody there to help them.

As a result of my experience I have developed a program that can very easily involve teacher education. A program that helps teachers feel that they are developing time-management techniques, and one that integrates the basic skills as completely as that can be done.

Thank you.

Senator PELL. Thank you very, very much, Miss Bradley. I appreciate your thoughts. I think you mentioned "holding the door". I think that is an old fashioned thought, but it is a good thought. Now some of the women resent it if you do hold the door.

Miss BRADLEY. You would certainly hold it for a gentleman.

Senator PELL. In that area you are right. But I do think your remarks are very appropriate and well put.

Senator Eagleton?

Senator EAGLETON. I think your remarks, Miss Bradley, were extraordinarily well put, although you were a spontaneous and totally unrehearsed witness.

I think perhaps you extemporaneously articulated the subject matter as well, or better than, anybody here today. I think the East Providence School System is pretty lucky to have a person like you in that system.

Senator PELL. Well, I am glad to see that you are wearing a Newport pineapple. [Laughter.]

We also have a statement which has been submitted for the record by Dr. William Burrell, who is the vice president of the Newport College, Solve Regina. This shall be inserted in the record.

Dr. BURRELL. Thank you, Senator.

[The prepared statement of Dr. Burrell follows:]

Submitted by:
Dr. William Burrell
Vice President
The Newport College - Salve Regina

BASIC SKILLS

One cannot quarrel with an endorsement of basic skills as an educational priority. Those responsible for undergraduate and graduate programs are well aware of the deficiencies which exist among entering students and of the problems these present to students and teachers. However, as in all attempts to remediate on existing state of affairs, there is a temptation to oversimplify what is involved in achieving a true solution. At least some current interpretations of the expression "basic skills" would seem to suggest a focus limited to rote mastery of information about decoding printed matter, using correct spelling and punctuation, computing, "talking". Essential as these may be, they do not of themselves constitute communication skills. To go beyond this computer output level of basic skills, students also need the following if such skills are to be meaningful:

(1) an exposure to a wide variety of concepts to give depth to what is received or expressed

(2) opportunities to analyze, criticize, and think divergently and to apply these consistently to reading, writing, speaking, listening

(3) opportunities to engage in communication activities which stress those human relations skills which constitute a major source of what actually is communicated

(4) interaction with teachers who model a high level of true communication skills as described above.

Colleges must assume responsibility to insist upon the ability of future teachers to deliver such educational services; school administrators and communities must assume responsibility to insist upon continued development and application to every teaching situation if students are to be able to apply the basic skills in a rapidly changing world. John Dewey's admonition that to teach a person to read and yet not to teach him/her to think is to expose him/her to a new form of servitude has implications for the present dialogue on the basic skills.

Senator PELL. And thank you for giving us this statement.

In conclusion, I would like to extend my thanks again to Mr. Conlombe for letting us have the hospitality of this school on this Saturday afternoon.

I also want to pay a compliment to Salvatore Raffa for the excellent way he has kept this building up. I have been here before and he is doing an impeccable job. I think this is one of the reasons why the children who come to this school have pride.

So thank you all very much, indeed. These hearings will be printed at some point, and when they are they will be available to anybody who writes in for it.

I believe someone wanted to say something before we conclude.

STATEMENT OF ERNESTINE MERCURIO, MEMBER, PROVIDENCE SCHOOL COMMITTEE, STATE-NATIONAL PTA

Mrs. MERCURIO. I think those in the room who know me are waiting for me to say something.

My name is Mrs. Mercurio and I am a lay person in this county. I am known to some of the people in this room, and my concern about the reading problem, I think, can be documented by many of the people in the room, goes back to the year 1961.

At that time, I could see people in our community were developing reading problems. At that time, the problems of desegregation were showing up. And it was really my concern that there were large numbers of children who were not reading.

Over the years I have been fortunate to have been able to follow all of the things that have been going on with reading. And then, in 1972, as a lay person, I would say I thought it was an honor to go before the board of regents and bring to them some of my concerns in the form of recommendations. I asked them to make reading their top priority.

The board of regents, at that time, did, indeed, focus their attention on reading, and since that time, I think our State has been really doing as much as it can.

However, over the years I have been following everything that has been going on and the problem just persists no matter what we do, or how we do it, or when we are doing it. We are still not meeting the needs of many thousands of youngsters.

It seems to me that one of the problems is perhaps that when treating the problem in isolation of the teacher—and I was happy to hear what this lady before me had to say about teachers—we are treating the problem in isolation of the home, and I don't think you can continue to treat problems in isolation.

I think we have to look and see what happens to the first grade teacher when she is confronted with 25 students of various backgrounds. I am just really delighted to know that you are still working at the problem. I hope that you never give up.

I have so many things that I wanted to say, and I am just nervous and don't know what to say. But I just feel that the reading problems are really serious and complex problems, and those of us who get up and say we are concerned for reaching, what we are saying is that we are concerned that children in this country are leaving school without having adequate skills to hold a job; without adequate skills to be able to direct their own earnings for later; without skills to go on to higher learning, if indeed they want.

I would like to see priorities rearranged. I look around at the colleges we have in our State college of higher learning, and we have large class sizes at the elementary grades, and we have smaller class sizes at the college level.

I don't mean to say that we must take away some of the things that we have in higher education, but I think if we are really sincere, we are going to have to look at class size in the elementary and secondary schools.

And I would hope that you would continue your concern, and those of you who are lay people will never give up. We will try to convince the rest of you that it is a most important issue perhaps that you as politicians could be facing.

Thank you.

Senator PELL. Thank you very much.

Senator EAGLETON. Thank you very much.

Senator PELL. This brings this hearing, an excellent one, to a close. The committee is adjourned.

[Whereupon, at 5:55 p.m. the subcommittee adjourned.]

APPENDIX

BASIC SKILLS FACT SHEET

The problem:

-- A 1971 Harris survey identified as illiterate approximately 4% of the population that had completed a high school education.

-- The Adult Performance Level Project found 11% of those with a high school education illiterate.

-- The Harris study found 5% of those classified at the professional-managerial level to be "functionally illiterate."

-- 40 to 50% of the children in urban schools are reading below grade level.

-- One-half of all unemployed youths aged 16-21 are functionally illiterate.

-- SAT scores have been declining for the majority of this decade.

Federal education programs:

In 1977, the National Institute of Education identified 44 federal programs involved with basic skills, with funding for all programs totaling over $3 billion.

Despite the magnitude of program involvement in basic skills, we are woefully ignorant about the components which add up to successful instruction in basic skills.

New federal program:

The Elementary and Secondary Education Amendments of 1978 authorized a new discretionary grant program of assistance to states and local school districts aimed at improving achievement in reading, mathematics, writing, and oral communication.

The new program is envisioned as a lever for coordinating basic skills efforts by sponsoring the development of state plans and the creation of exemplary local programs that can demonstrate the integration of funding from different sources. The new program will also provide an opportunity to explore the impact of parental participation and technology development in basic skills programs.

The Basic Skills program will be effective October 1, 1979. The Administration has recommended $37 million for Fiscal Year 1980, its first year of operation.

Hearings:

The Senate Subcommittee on Education will begin a series of hearings on the Basic Skills program on February 7, 1979 in Washington. Field hearings are scheduled for February 12-14 in Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans, respectively.

The hearings will provide an in-depth consideration of the needs to be addressed, alternative responses to the problems across the country, an an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses thereof.

SUMMARY - BASIC SKILLS PROGRAM
ESEA AMENDMENTS OF 1978
(Prepared by Eagleton Staff)

This new program is Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. It authorizes three programs of support for basic skills (reading, writing, and mathematics) education:

1. A national program of direct grants from HEW in various aspects of basic skills instruction;

2. A program of support for State basic skills efforts;

3. An inexpensive book distribution program and a special mathematics program.

A. National Program

1. Eligible applicants: Grants can be made by HEW to local schools systems and other public and private non-profit organizations.

2. Authorized activities: Grants for demonstration programs in reading, math, and communications instruction. Grants for programs to help parents at home improve children's basic skills. Grants for use of television and radio programming in basic skills improvement.

3. Money: The first $20 million appropriated for Title II, parts A and B, goes to the national program.

B. State Programs

1. Purpose and Eligibility: States may receive funds under a formula (school age population basis with a $50,000 state minimum). 70% of state funds must go to local education agencies for the improvement of basic skills and instruction proficiency.

2. Authorized activities: School programs shall include diagnostic assessment of all children in a school; establishment of goals and objectives; teacher inservice training; and achievement testing. Grants can also be used to enlist parental support and involvement in their children's education.

3. State Leadership: States may carry on training activities designed to prepare teachers and administrators to implement effective basic skills programs.

4. Money: A "such sums" is authorized for a program to teach math skills to children who are eligible for services under Title I and VI of ESEA (compensatory education for disadvantaged and the Emergency School Aid Act). Commissioner may contract with non-profit organizations, which then must work with local school districts.

Appropriations for Basic Skills

The 1979 appropriations for basic skills programs were $28 million. The President has requested an additional $9 million in his fiscal 1980 budget request, which would give this program a total funding level of $37 million.

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[Excerpt from Public Law 95-561--Nov. 1, 1978]

TITLE II—ESTABLISHMENT OF A NEW TITLE II OF THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965

BASIC SKILLS

SEC. 201. Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (hereinafter in titles II through IX of this Act referred to as "the Act") is amended to read as follows:

"TITLE II—BASIC SKILLS IMPROVEMENT

"PART A—NATIONAL PROGRAM

"PURPOSE

"SEC. 201. The purpose of this part is— 20 USC 2881.

"(1) to assist Federal, State, and local educational agencies to coordinate the utilization of all available resources for elementary and secondary education to improve instruction so that all children are able to master the basic skills of reading, mathematics, and effective communication, both written and oral;

"(2) to encourage States to develop comprehensive and systematic plans for improving achievement in the basic skills;

"(3) to provide financial assistance to State and local educational agencies for the development of programs in the basic skills;

"(4) to develop means by which parents working with the schools can contribute to improving the educational achievement of their children;

"(5) to encourage the involvement of the private sector in the delivery to children, youths, and adults of educational services and materials that will improve achievement in the basic skills; and

"(6) to expand the use of television and other technology in the delivery of instructional programs aimed at improving achievement in the basic skills.

"APPLICATIONS

Grant or contract.
20 USC 2882.

"SEC. 202. (a) The Secretary may make a grant or award a contract under this part only upon the submission of an application by an eligible entity at the time and in the form prescribed by the Secretary. Each such application by a State or local educational agency shall provide assurances that—

"(1) in designing the proposal for which application is made, the needs of children in nonprofit private elementary and secondary schools have been taken into account through consultation with private school officials; and, to the maximum extent feasible, and consistent with the number of such children in the area to be served who have the educational needs the proposal is intended to address, those children will be provided an opportunity to participate in the proposed activity on a basis comparable to that provided for public school children;

"(2) procedures have been developed to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed activity in achieving the purposes of this title; and

"(3) procedures have been developed for incorporating successful practices developed with assistance under this title into the regular instructional program.

"(b) No grant or contract may be awarded to a local educational agency under this part unless the appropriate State educational agency has been provided an opportunity for at least thirty days to comment on the application.

"ACCEPTANCE OF GIFTS

20 USC 2883.
20 USC 1221e-3.

"SEC. 203. Notwithstanding the provisions of section 408(a)(3) of the General Education Provisions Act, the Secretary may accept, on behalf of the United States, conditional or unconditional gifts or donations of services, money, or property, made for any activities authorized to be carried out under this title.

"GRANTS AND CONTRACTS

20 USC 2884.

"SEC. 204. (a) In order to achieve the purposes of this part, the Secretary is authorized, during the period of October 1, 1979, through September 30, 1983, to make grants to, and enter into contracts with, State and local educational agencies, and other public and private agencies, organizations, and institutions to carry out planning, research, development, demonstrations (including training of leadership personnel, evaluation, and dissemination, as described in sections 205 through 209), except that no grant may be made under this part to other than a public or nonprofit private agency, organization, or institution.

"(b) The Secretary may provide to such agencies, organizations, and institutions, either directly or through grants or contracts, technical assistance related to the purposes of this part.

"INSTRUCTION IN BASIC SKILLS

20 USC 2885.

"SEC. 205. The Secretary shall provide assistance, in accordance with section 204, for activities designed to demonstrate improved delivery of instructional services in the areas of reading, mathematics, and oral and written communication, including—

"(1) assessment of schoolwide needs to identify the instructional needs of children in basic skills;

"(2) establishing learning goals and objectives for each school;

"(3) the development of comprehensive programs to address the needs through the use of resources available under this part and other resources from local, State, and Federal programs;

"(4) the demonstration of techniques for coordinating the efforts of local agencies, organizations, and institutions, to improve achievement in basic skills;

"(5) preservice training programs for teaching personnel including teacher aides and other ancillary educational personnel, and in-service training and development programs, designed to enable such personnel to improve their ability to teach basic skills; and

"(6) active involvement of teachers, teacher aides, administrators, and other educational personnel to improve their ability to utilize available resources to carry out the purposes of this part.

"PARENTAL PARTICIPATION IN BASIC SKILLS INSTRUCTION

"SEC. 206. The Secretary, in accordance with section 204, shall support activities designed to enlist the assistance of parents and volunteers working with schools to improve the skills of children in reading, mathematics, and oral and written communication. The activities which may be supported under this section include— 20 USC 2886.

"(1) the development and dissemination of materials that, with appropriate training, parents may use in the home to improve their children's performance in those skills; and

"(2) voluntary training activities for parents to encourage them to assist their children in developing basic skills.

"USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN BASIC SKILLS INSTRUCTION

"SEC. 207. The Secretary, in accordance with section 204, shall support development and demonstration activities related to the improved use of television and other technology to contribute to the instruction of children in reading, mathematics, and written and oral communication. The activities authorized under this section shall be designed to expand the variety and improve the quality of instructional efforts involving the use of technology. The activities which may be supported under this section include— 20 USC 2887.

"(1) the development and acquisition of educational programing, including audio and video materials distributed through broadcast, cable, tape, film, cassettes, or other means that provide instruction in basic skills in an effective manner;

"(2) the development and acquisition of instructional materials that supplement educational programing described in clause (1) of this section in order to improve its effectiveness in the school, the home, and other learning environments;

"(3) the development and acquisition of materials to assist teachers in relating such programing, or similar public or commercial programs of educational value, to instruction in the classroom;

"(4) the training of teachers, administrators, and other instructional personnel in the use of educational technology;

"(5) assistance to teachers, administrators, and other instructional personnel for experimentation with new technological approaches to instruction; and

"(6) distribution of information about, and promotion of the use of, such programing and technology in the classroom and other learning environments.

"INVOLVEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES AND PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS

20 USC 2888. "SEC. 208. (a) The Secretary shall provide assistance and information to State and local educational agencies, institutions of higher education, and private agencies, organizations, and institutions (such as labor unions, volunteer organizations, and business associations) to support the efforts of such agencies, organizations, and institutions to stimulate children, youths, and adults to improve their achievement in basic skills. The activities which may be supported under this section include—

"(1) programs to motivate children to improve their reading skills through the distribution to children of books;

"(2) instructional programs and voluntary tutorial programs to provide individual assistance outside of the school to children, youths, and adults with instruction needs;

"(3) community efforts to encourage individuals to improve their performance in basic skills; and

"(4) the establishment of programs for lending or selling books to children, youths, and adults.

"(b) Activities supported under subsection (a)(2) may be known as reading academies.

"COLLECTION AND DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION RELATING TO BASIC SKILLS PROGRAMS

20 USC 2889. "SEC. 209. The Secretary is authorized to use funds appropriated under this part to collect and analyze information concerning the results of activities carried out under this title and under part C of title IV, including information on the activities which have been successful in improving the achievement of students in the basic skills. Such funds may also be used to disseminate that information to State and local educational agencies and other interested public and private agencies, organizations, and institutions.

Post, p. 2237.

"COORDINATION

Procedures. 20 USC 2890. "SEC. 210. The Secretary shall establish effective and efficient procedures for coordination between the programs assisted under this part and other parts of this title, with programs assisted under title I and title IV of this Act, title V of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, title V of the Higher Education Act of 1965, and other such Federal programs that support efforts to improve the basic skills of children, youth and adults.

Ante, p. 2153. Post, p. 2229. 42 USC 2921. 20 USC 1101.

"PART B—STATE BASIC SKILLS IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

"STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

20 USC 2901. "SEC. 221. It is the purpose of this part to provide financial assistance to States to enable them—

"(1) to develop comprehensive and systematic statewide plans for improving achievement in the basic skills, to coordinate available resources for elementary and secondary education, and to provide financial assistance to improve the instruction so that all

children are able to master the basic skills of reading, mathematics, and effective communication, both written and oral;

"(2) to provide assistance to local agencies in the development and implementation of comprehensive programs to improve basic skills proficiency and instruction in the elementary and secondary schools;

"(3) to develop means by which parents working with the schools can contribute to improving the educational achievement of their children;

"(4) to provide State leadership in the planning, execution, and evaluation of basic skills instructional programs in elementary and secondary schools; and

"(5) to arrange for and assist in the training of educational staff, including special reading and mathematics personnel and specialists needed in programs assisted under this part.

"AGREEMENTS WITH STATE EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

"SEC. 222. (a) Any State which desires to receive grants under this part shall, through its State educational agency, enter into an agreement with the Secretary, in such detail as the Secretary deems necessary, which— 20 USC 2902.

"(1) designates the State educational agency as the agency for administration of the agreement;

"(2) provides for a process of active and continuing consultation with the State educational agency, by persons broadly representative of the educational resources of the State and of the general public, including persons representative of— Consultation.

"(A) public and private nonprofit elementary and secondary schoolchildren,

"(B) institutions of higher education,

"(C) parents of elementary and secondary schoolchildren,

"(D) areas of professional competence relating to basic skills instruction in reading and mathematics,

"(E) classroom teachers in the State, and

"(F) local administrators including principals and superintendents,

to advise the State educational agency on the planning, development, implementation, and evaluation of a comprehensive State program for improving basic skills;

"(3) describes the basic skills instructional programs in elementary and secondary schools for which assistance is sought under this part and procedures for giving priority to basic skills programs which are already receiving Federal financial assistance and show reasonable promise of achieving success;

"(4) sets forth criteria for achieving an equitable distribution of that part of the assistance under this part which is made available to local educational agencies pursuant to the second sentence of subsection (b) of this section, which criteria shall— Assistance, equitable distribution criteria.

"(A) take into account the size of the population to be served, beginning with preschool, the relative needs of pupils in different population groups within the State for the program authorized by this part, and the financial ability of the local educational agency serving such pupils, and

"(B) assure that such distribution shall include grants to local educational agencies having high concentrations of children with low reading or mathematics proficiency;

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"(5) provides for the coordination and evaluation of programs assisted under this part;

"(6) provides for technical assistance and support services for local educational agencies participating in the program;

"(7) makes provision for the dissemination to the educational community and the general public of information about the objectives of the program and results achieved in the course of its implementation;

"(8) provides for making a report, at least once every three years, and such other reports, in such form and containing such information, as the Secretary may reasonably require to evaluate the effectiveness of the program and to carry out his other functions under this part;

"(9) provides that not more than 5 per centum of the amount allotted to the State under this part for any fiscal year may be retained by the State educational agency for purposes of administering the agreement;

"(10) provides that programs assisted under this part shall be of sufficient size, scope, and quality so as to give reasonable promise of substantial progress toward achieving the purposes of this part; and

"(11) provides that Federal funds expended under the program will supplement the level of State and local funds that would be available for such programs in the absence of Federal assistance, and in no event will supplant such State and local funds.

Grants.

"(b) Grants for projects to carry out the purposes of this part may be made to local educational agencies (subject to the provision of subsection (c) relating to the participation of private elementary and secondary school pupils), institutions of higher education, and other public and nonprofit agencies and institutions. Not less than 70 per centum of the amount allotted to a State under this part for any fiscal year shall be made available by the State for grants to local educational agencies within that State.

Ante, p. 2171.

"(c) The provisions of section 130(a)(1) of this Act relating to the participation of children enrolled in private elementary and secondary schools shall apply to programs assisted under this part.

Assistance applications. School level programs.

"(d) Each application by a local educational agency within a State for assistance under this part shall be developed in conjunction with teachers and building administrators in such district. The application shall set forth a systematic strategy for improving basic skills instruction in the local district which provides for the planning and implementation of comprehensive basic skills instructional programs at the school building level. The school level programs shall address the needs of all students and shall utilize, in a coordinated fashion, resources available from all Federal, State, and local sources. Teachers, administrators, and parents shall be involved in the development of the comprehensive school level programs. Such programs shall include—

"(1) diagnostic assessment to identify the needs of all of the children in the school;

"(2) the establishment of learning goals and objectives for the school;

"(3) to the extent practicable, preservice training and inservice training and development programs for teaching and administrative personnel, including teacher-aides and other ancillary educational personnel, designed to enable such personnel to improve their ability to teach students the basic skills;

"(4) activities designed to enlist the support of parents to aid in the instruction of their children at home and school;

"(5) procedures for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the program, including a program of periodic testing of basic skills achievement and the publication of test results on basic skills performance by grade level and by school, without identification of performance of individual children;

"(6) assessment, evaluation, and collection of information on individual children by teachers during each year of a pre-elementary program, to be made available for teachers in the subsequent year, in order that continuity for the individual child not be lost. Such information shall also be available to parents or guardians of the individual children.

"(e) In addition to the grants authorized in subsection (d), the State educational agency may also make grants to support activities designed to enlist the assistance of parents working with schools to improve the skills of their children in reading, mathematics, and oral and written communication. Activities that may be supported under this section include— Activities support grants.

"(1) the development and dissemination of materials that parents may use in the home to improve their children's performance in those skills;

"(2) the encouragement of closer contacts between parents and teachers to improve the coordination between learning experiences in the home and those in school;

"(3) planning for, developing and improving centers accessible to parents to provide materials and professional guidance, including volunteers, for parents who desire to assist in the instruction of their children; and

"(4) the demonstration of training programs for parents who desire to develop new skills to complement the instruction their children receive in school.

"(f) The Secretary shall enter into an agreement which complies with the provisions of subsection (a) with any State which desires to enter into such an agreement.

"DISTRIBUTION OF FUNDS

"SEC. 223. The Secretary shall distribute grants under the provisions of this part so as to assure that each State having an agreement under section 222 will receive not less than the amount which bears the same ratio to the total amount available for this part for a fiscal year as the number of school age children (aged five through seventeen inclusive) in that State bears to the number of such children in all States, except that any State having an agreement shall not receive less than $50,000 in any such fiscal year. 20 USC 2903.

"STATE LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

"SEC. 224. The Secretary is authorized to enter into agreement with State educational agencies for the carrying out by such agencies of leadership and training activities designed to prepare personnel throughout the State to implement programs which have been demonstrated in that State or other States to be effective in overcoming deficiencies in the basic skills, and to develop and implement statewide plans for improving the skills of children, youth, and adults in reading, mathematics, and oral and written communication. The activities authorized by this section shall be limited to— Agreements. 20 USC 2904.

"(1) the development of a comprehensive statewide program providing for the coordination of all Federal and State programs that provide instruction in basic skills;

"(2) planning activities that involve local administrators, teachers, and parents in the development of strategies to improve instruction in basic skills;

"(3) statewide assessments of need relating to basic skills, including the needs of both students and instructional personnel;

"(4) in-service training programs for local administrators, instructional personnel, and other staff members involved in instruction in basic skills; and

"(5) the provision of technical assistance and the dissemination of information relating to basic skills instruction to local educational agencies and other organizations and institutions involved in programs of instruction in basic skills.

"PART C—SPECIAL PROGRAMS FOR IMPROVING BASIC SKILLS

"INEXPENSIVE BOOK DISTRIBUTION PROGRAM FOR READING MOTIVATION

Contract.
20 USC 2911.

"SEC. 231. (a) The Commissioner is authorized (1) to enter into a contract with a private nonprofit group or public agency (hereinafter in this section referred to as the 'contractor'), which has as its primary purpose the motivation of children to learn to read, to support and promote the establishment of reading motivational programs which include the distribution of inexpensive books to students and (2) to pay the Federal share of the cost of such programs.

Federal share, payment.

Contract provisions.

"(b) The contract shall provide that—

"(1) the contractor will enter into subcontracts with local private nonprofit groups or organizations or with public agencies (hereinafter referred to as 'subcontractors') under which the subcontractors will agree to establish, operate, and provide the non-Federal share of the cost of reading motivational programs which include the distribution of books by gift or loan, to pre-elementary, elementary or secondary schoolchildren;

"(2) funds made available by the Commissioner to a contractor pursuant to any contract entered into under this section will be used to pay the Federal share of the cost of establishing and operating reading motivational programs as provided in paragraph (1); and

"(3) the contractor will meet such other conditions and standards as the Commissioner determines to be necessary to assure the effectiveness of the programs authorized by this section and will provide technical assistance in furtherance of the purposes of this section.

"(c) The Commissioner shall make no payment of the Federal share of the cost of acquiring and distributing books pursuant to a contract authorized by this section unless he determines that the contractor or the subcontractor, as the case may be, has made arrangements with book publishers or distributors to obtain books at discounts at least as favorable as discounts that are customarily given by such publisher or distributor for book purchases made under similar circumstances in the absence of Federal assistance.

Definitions.

"(d) For purposes of this section—

"(1) the term 'nonprofit', when used in connection with any organization, means an organization no part of the net earnings of which inures, or may lawfully inure, to the benefit of any private shareholder or individual;

"(2) the term 'Federal share' means, with respect to the cost of books purchased by a local private nonprofit group, organization, or public agency for a program in a locality for distributing such books to schoolchildren in that locality, 75 per centum of the cost of that agency or group or organization for such books for such program; except when such nonprofit group, organization or public agency has within the two years preceding its application for assistance, received Federal funds under a program to benefit migrant and seasonal farmworkers in which the Federal share was 100 per centum. In that case the term 'Federal share', under this section, shall mean 100 per centum of the cost of that agency or group or organization for such books that are distributed to the children of migrant and seasonal farmworkers; and

"(3) the term 'pre-elementary school' means a day or residential school which provides pre-elementary education, as determined under State law, except that such term does not include education for children who have not attained three years of age.

"(e) There are authorized to be appropriated to carry out the provisions of this section $9,000,000 for fiscal year 1979, $10,000,000 for fiscal year 1980, $11,000,000 for fiscal year 1981, and $12,000,000 for each of the two succeeding fiscal years. Under such conditions as the Commissioner determines to be appropriate, not to exceed 10 per centum of the amounts appropriated for each fiscal year shall be available for a contract from the Commissioner to the contractor designated under subsection (a) of this section for technical assistance under subsection (b)(3) of this section to carry out the provisions of such section. Appropriation authorization.

"SPECIAL MATHEMATICS PROGRAM

"SEC. 232. (a) The Commissioner is authorized to make grants to, and enter into contracts with, one or more private nonprofit agencies, institutions, or organizations, for the conduct, in cooperation with one or more local educational agencies, of special programs for the teaching of standard mathematics to children eligible for services under titles I and VI of this Act through instruction in advanced mathematics by qualified instructors with bachelor's degrees in mathematics, or the mathematical sciences from colleges or other institutions of higher education, or equivalent experience. 20 USC 2912. Ante, p. 2153. Post, p. 2229.

"(b) There are authorized to be appropriated such sums as may be necessary for fiscal year 1980 and for each of the three succeeding fiscal years, to carry out the provisions of this section. Appropriation authorization.

"PART D—GENERAL PROVISIONS

"AUTHORIZATION OF APPROPRIATIONS

"SEC. 241. There are authorized to be appropriated such sums for the fiscal year 1980 and for each succeeding fiscal year ending prior to October 1, 1983, as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of parts A and B of this title. 20 USC 2921.

"APPORTIONMENT OF APPROPRIATIONS

"SEC. 242. (a) From the first $20,000,000 appropriated pursuant to section 241 of any fiscal year the Secretary shall carry out the provision of part A of this title. 20 USC 2922.

"(b) From the amounts in excess of $20,000,000 in any fiscal year the Secretary shall carry out the provisions of part B of this title.".

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
5835 SOUTH KIMBARK AVENUE
CHICAGO · ILLINOIS 60637

BENJAMIN S. BLOOM
Charles H. Swift Distinguished Service Professor

May 1, 1979

Honorable Thomas F. Eagleton
United States Senate
Committee on Human Resources
Washington, D.C. 20510

Dear Senator:

The quotation in the Center Magazine was not quite right. My point was that since each item correct on the test accounts for 8 to 10 SAT points, a drop of 25 points on the norms could be accounted for by only 3 test questions.

I enclose my letter to Thorndike which suggests that some of the SAT questions are remarkably stable from time to time, while others change greatly. My major purpose was to have the College Board investigate the effects of individual questions on the changing norms.

However, as the SAT report makes clear, no single cause will account for the major drop in SAT scores. Each possible cause must be appropriately investigated and monitored over a number of years.

Thank you for your interest in the matter.

Sincerely,

Benjamin S. Bloom
Professor of Education

cc: W. Willard Wirtz

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
5835 KIMBARK AVENUE
CHICAGO • ILLINOIS 60637

February 25, 1976

Professor Robert L. Thorndike
Department of Psychology
Teachers College
Columbia University
New York, New York 10027

Dear Bob:

Mr. James Braswell gave me a set of the anchor items used in the 3/64-1/68 and 5/68-3/73 SAT test equating. I have attempted to look at each question in terms of the stability of the results over time. In addition, I have tried to determine why a question would be easier or more difficult at one time as compared with another.

It is my understanding that the effectiveness of equating procedures from one time to another depends on two assumptions:

A. That similar samples of students are included at the two times.

B. That identical items are used at the two times.

My colleagues here at the University of Chicago believe that the equating procedures are relatively robust and can tolerate some differences in the samples of students. However, there is some question about the effects of larger differences in the samples and whether some of the statistical equating procedures may over time produce serious drifts in the scores. I find little or no evidence that the samples used for equating at two times are comparable on a number of important characteristics. If this is true, then steps should be taken to correct this.

On the second assumption, I am concerned that the same test items given at two times are not identical in meaning to the students. That is, the items are related to the experiences of students (in or out of school) and how a question and the choices are interpreted is subject to considerable fluctuation from time to time.

In the attached table I have shown the average percent correct for each type of test. It is evident that the Reading Comprehension, Algebra, and the Geometry items are the most stable while the Antonym, Analogy, and Arithmetic items are least stable.

It seems to me that the more stable items are those in which either the subject matter (algebra and geometry) or the relatively lengthy passages forms a corpus to which the individual items are related. That is, the subject matter or the reading passages furnish a common content to the students (which doesn't change greatly over time) and that the students answer the questions on the basis of this common content.

The least stable items are the questions where general experience, logical processes, and language (vocabulary) are the basis on which the answers are constructed--with little in the way of a particular subject or passage to serve as the criterion. Such questions (and the correct answers for them) may more easily be influenced by changing times and changing general experiences.

Thus, I have noted a number of questions in the Sentence Completion section where it seems apparent, to me at least, that the passage of a few years has affected the meaning of the questions as well as the choices. Thus, the term drug was more easily seen as a synonym for pharmaceuticals at one time and as a synonym for addictive chemicals at another. A question about political leaders in the anchor items before Watergate is very different from the same question after Watergate. A question about crime looks very different in 1973 than in 1968. In a few instances, the correct answer is more likely at the later administration than at the earlier one, but in a majority of instances, the item writers wrote the item in such a way that it fitted the times and conditions when they wrote it. As a result, the later administration typically is more difficult (another choice among the alternatives is more attractive). I gather that this is generally found in most test item writing--they fit the time and place in which they are constructed and fit less well at other times and places.

In the Sentence Completion test, I have noted at least four (out of ten) items where changing times and experiences have seriously affected the meaning (and correct answers) of the questions. I daresay that additional judges would find a few more to question from this point of view.

The main point I am trying to make is that some of the decline in SAT scores is dependent on the kinds of test material used--the stable types of items would yield very little decline while the less stable types of items magnify the decline. There are major policy implications for SAT in determining the kinds of test items to use in measuring verbal and mathematical competence. Second, individual items--especially those used in equating different forms of the test--must be selected not only on psychometric grounds but also on the basis of how they fit

into the larger social context and experiences of the candidates. Identical items should be defined both in terms of identity of content as well as identity of meaning.

I would also point out that the analogy items are the least stable of the verbal items. Thus, there were 20 items out of the 80 verbal items (in both anchor sets) where a later test administration was 5% or more lower than the earlier one. One-half of these least stable items were in the analogy section. I believe it is very difficult to make analogy items where the relation between the critical pair is clearly parallel in one of the alternative pairs. Thus, few music lovers would go along with HOMESTRETCH:RACE -- finale:opera. Others would object to SECEDE:FEDERATION -- resign:club. I know I must sound like Hoffman, but I would be hard-put to defend the test key for many of the analogy items in the 20 I have seen in these anchor items.

If the Modu-Stern proposal to administer 1965 and 1973 tests to a current sample is done, I hope some effort will be made to select test forms which minimize some of the problems I have cited in the above.

With regard to samples of students in the SAT, I am still concerned about the effect of changing college admission policy on the junior SAT takers. I believe that the absolute number of 600+ students has not declined if junior 600+ are combined with non-overlapping senior 600+ scores, even though the percent of the total mix has changed. Or, if a select group of SES, college plans, and H.S. grades are compared for 1963 to 1973, the percent of 600+ (junior + senior) should remain the same. I believe Al Beaton was proposing something like this. It should be possible to determine these figures quite simply without resorting to other testing groups. Perhaps I believe College Board has more information about mid-1960's SAT takers than is really true.

Sorry the letter is so long. However, I did devote so damn much time to thinking about each of the anchor items and the pattern of results.

Regards,

Benjamin S. Bloom
Professor of Education

BSB:cm
cc: G. Hanford
R. Tyler

TABLE 1

Average percent correct for each of the anchor subtests of the SAT

		No. of Items	Mar 1964	Jan 1968	May 1968	Mar 1974	
VERBAL	Antonym	10	49%	48%	46%	41%	LS
	Analogy	10	55%	51%	52%	45%	LS
	Sentence Completion	10	57%	56%	52%	49%	
	Reading Comprehension	10	47%	46%	51%	49%	MS
			Mar 1964	Jan 1968	May 1967	Apr 1974	
MATHEMATICAL	Algebra	8	48%	47%	52%	50%	MS
	Arithmetic	5(7)*	67%	62%	48%	45%	LS
	Geometry	9(8)*	52%	50%	44%	42%	
	Miscellaneous	3(2)*	50%	50%	50%	48%	MS

LS Least Stable
MS Most Stable

* Number of items in the 1967-74 subtest

Office of the Commissioner

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
Department of Education

31 St. James Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02116

February 9, 1979

MEMORANDUM: School Committee Chairpersons
Superintendents of Schools
Public School Principals
Other Interested Persons

On January 23, 1979, the State Board of Education approved the attached Regulations for Implementation of the Basic Skills Improvement Policy. These regulations define the requirements for basic skills improvement programs that public school districts will be establishing in the areas of reading, writing, mathematics, listening and speaking. The regulations were adopted after public hearings were held in November, 1978. The Board of Education and I believe that these regulations will serve as a vehicle for public schools, with broad community participation, to establish sound minimum standards for basic skills and to examine their instructional programs in light of these expectations.

The Department of Education is planning a number of activities to help school systems implement these regulations. Regional workshops have been scheduled in March and April for the purpose of explaining the provisions of these regulations. Information on the dates and locations of these meetings is included with this mailing. Additional workshops will be held later this year on such topics as evaluation instruments, standard setting procedures, model basic skills programs, and reporting requirements. School districts also will be receiving information on suggested procedures for developing basic skills improvement programs as well as materials that are available for teaching and assessing the skills of listening and speaking.

Although school districts have until August 1, 1980 to develop their initial basic skills improvement programs, the Board of Education and I encourage communities to begin this process as soon as possible. The participation of administrators, teachers, students, parents, employers, and the general public in the development of local programs is key to the success of this effort. School officials are asked to provide local residents with information on these regulations and to encourage citizen participation in the development of local plans.

The Board of Education and I wish you success in developing and implementing your basic skills improvement programs.

Gregory R. Anrig
Commissioner of Education

REGULATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION
OF THE
BASIC SKILLS IMPROVEMENT POLICY

Commonwealth of Massachusetts
Department of Education
January 23, 1979

MASSACHUSETTS BOARD OF EDUCATION

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The Massachusetts Department of Education insures equal employment/educational opportunities/and affirmative action, regardless of race, color, creed, national origin, or sex, in compliance with Title IX, or handicap, in compliance with Section 504.

Publication #11182 approved by Alfred C. Holland, State Purchasing Agent.

603 CMR: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

603 CMR 40.00: REGULATIONS FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE BASIC SKILLS IMPROVEMENT POLICY

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Regulations governing the implementation of the Basic Skills Improvement Policy were adopted by the Massachusetts Board of Education on January 23, 1979.

Introduction

The purpose of these regulations is to implement the "Policy on Basic Skills Improvement" adopted by the Board of Education on August 29, 1978 and to assist students in achieving mastery of basic skills prior to high school graduation through the provision of appropriate curriculum, instruction, and evaluation. These regulations shall apply to all public school districts providing educational services to students in all or part of grades kindergarten through twelve in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. These regulations are promulgated by the Board of Education pursuant to its powers under Section 1G of Chapter 15 of the General Laws which directs that "the board shall establish minimum educational standards for all courses which public schools require their students to take" and which authorizes the board to "collect and maintain information from any public school system in the Commonwealth relevant to its work...." In implementing these regulations, public school districts shall place emphasis on diagnosing learning needs and adjusting the regular curriculum to meet these needs.

40.01: Definitions

The various terms as used in these regulations are defined below:

(1) Advisory Committee shall mean the Advisory Committee on Basic Skills Improvement established by the Board of Education pursuant to Section 40.11 of these regulations.

(2) Annual Report shall mean the Annual Report on Basic Skills Improvement Programs which public school districts shall submit to the Department of Education pursuant to Section 40.09 of these regulations.

(3) Basic skills shall mean the following skills: reading, writing, listening, speaking and mathematics.

(4) Basic skills improvement programs shall mean the programs which public school districts are required to establish by Section 40.02 of these regulations.

(5) Early elementary level shall mean all or part of grades kindergarten through three.

(6) Early elementary and later elementary level program plans shall mean the written documents public school districts shall prepare pursuant to Section 40.06 of these regulations.

(7) Evaluation instruments shall mean the tests or assessment techniques that public school districts shall use to determine whether students have or have not achieved minimum standards.

(8) Later elementary level shall mean all or part of grades four through six.

(9) Minimum standards shall mean (a) the objectives in the basic skills and (b) the level of achievement for the objectives in the basic skills that public school districts shall establish for students for the early elementary, later elementary and secondary levels pursuant to these regulations.

(10) Parent shall mean a father, mother, or legal guardian.

(11) Public school district shall mean city, town and regional school committees; local and district trustees for vocational education and boards of trustees of county agricultural schools created pursuant to General Laws, Chapter 74; Superintendents of Smith's Agricultural School established by Chapter 151 of the Special Acts of 1918; and the governing board of any other public school providing educational services to students in all or part of grades kindergarten through twelve in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The public school district is responsible for the overall implementation of these regulations, but it may delegate to its public school administration the specific tasks required by the regulations, as appropriate.

(12) Regional Education Centers shall mean the six operational field offices of the Department of Education located in specified geographical regions of the Commonwealth.

(13) Regional Education Councils shall mean the councils established by the Board of Education pursuant to the "Revised Board of Education Policy on Regional Education Councils."

(14) Secondary level shall mean all or part of grades seven through twelve.

(15) Secondary level program plans shall mean the written documents public school districts shall prepare pursuant to Section 40.07 of these regulations.

40.02: Basic Skills Improvement Program

(1) Each public school district shall establish a basic skills improvement program which shall include the establishment of minimum standards and provision for evaluating student achievement of minimum standards required by Sections 40.03 to 40.05 of these regulations, and the establishment and implementation of the early elementary, later elementary and secondary level program plans required by Sections 40.06 and 40.07 of these regulations.

(2) Each public school district shall provide for genuine public participation in the development and periodic review of its basic skills improvement program. At all grade levels, public participation shall include: employers; parents, including Title I parents, of students enrolled in the public school district; teachers and administrators employed by the public school district; and the general public. In addition, at the secondary level, public participation shall include secondary school students enrolled in the public school district.

40.03: Establishment of Minimum Standards

(1) Each public school district shall establish minimum standards in each of the basic skills for the following grade levels, if applicable: early elementary, later elementary and secondary. At the secondary level the minimum standards established by each public school district shall include, but not necessarily be limited to, the basic skills objectives set forth in Section 40.04 of these regulations.

(a) By August 1, 1980, each public school district shall establish minimum standards in the basic skills of reading, writing and mathematics.

(b) By August 1, 1981, each public school district shall establish minimum standards in the basic skills of listening and speaking.

(2) Each public school district shall determine the specific grade or grades within the early elementary, later elementary and secondary levels for which minimum standards shall be established.

40.04: Secondary Level Minimum Standards

The secondary level minimum standards shall include, but not necessarily be limited to, the following basic skills objectives:

(1) Reading.
- (a) Basic Word Meaning
  1. Identify the meaning of commonly used words within a sentence that does not provide clues to the meaning of the word
  2. Identify the meaning of a word within a sentence that provides clues to the meaning of the word
- (b) Literal Comprehension
  1. Identify the meaning of a written phrase, clause, sentence, or paragraph
  2. Demonstrate the ability to follow directions
  3. Identify the main idea, supporting details, and conclusion of a paragraph
  4. Recognize the sequence of events or ideas in a written passage
  5. Identify information on a chart, map, or graph
- (c) Interpretive Comprehension
  1. Draw conclusions implied in a paragraph or passage
  2. Identify cause and effect relationships implied in a paragraph or passage
  3. Predict an outcome implied in a paragraph or passage
- (d) Evaluative Comprehension
  1. Identify a statement as fact or opinion
  2. Identify the writer's purpose in a paragraph or passage written to inform or persuade
- (e) Locating Information
  1. Use the parts of a book
  2. Locate information in a variety of sources

(2) Writing. Given the opportunity to use a dictionary, students, through their own writing samples, will demonstrate:
- (a) Knowledge of the subject
  1. The writer has something to say
  2. Ideas are suported with relevant details
- (b) Clear and consistent purpose
- (c) Organization
  1. Ideas are related
  2. Ideas progress logically from one point to another
- (d) An awareness of the intended reader

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(e) Precise word choices
  1. Words appeal to the reader's senses
  2. Words suit the purpose
  3. Words are appropriate for the intended reader
(f) Fulfillment of the purpose
  1. Adequate information is provided
  2. The writing is free of irrelevancy
  3. The conclusion reemphasizes the purpose
(g) Correct capitalization and punctuation
(h) Correct spelling
(i) Legible handwriting
(j) Complete sentences
(k) Standard use of nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs
(l) Agreement of subject and verb

(3) Listening.
(a) Basic Listening Skills
  1. Recognize words and phrases used by the speaker
  2. Indicate why the speaker can or cannot be understood
(b) Understanding What You Hear
  1. Understand spoken words and ideas
  2. Identify and understand main ideas
  3. Associate important details with main ideas
  4. Understand descriptions of events and experiences
  5. Understand speaker's purpose
(c) Using What You Hear
  1. Understand and respond to survival words used in emergency situations
  2. Summarize information and draw conclusions
  3. Recognize when words and phrases are used to convince or persuade
  4. Follow straightforward directions

(4) Speaking.
(a) Basic Oral Communication Skills
  1. Use words and phrases appropriate to the situation
  2. Speak loudly enough to be heard by a listener or group of listeners
  3. Speak at a rate the listener can understand
  4. Say words distinctly
(b) Planning, Developing and Stating Spoken Messages
  1. Use words in an order that clearly expresses the thought
  2. Organize main ideas for presentation
  3. State main ideas clearly
  4. Support main ideas with important details
  5. Demonstrate knowledge of standard English usage
(c) Common Uses of Spoken Messages
  1. Use survival words to cope with emergency situations
  2. Speak so listener understands purpose
  3. Ask for and give straightforward information
  4. Describe objects, events and experiences
  5. Question others' viewpoints

(5) Mathematics

(a) Number and Numeration Concepts

1. Recognize number symbols (17, eighteen), whole numbers (34), fractions ($\frac{1}{4}$), decimals (3.75), and powers of 10 (10^2)
2. Identify odd and even numbers
3. Put numbers in numerical order
4. Recognize equivalent fractions $\left[\frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}\right]$

(b) Arithmetic Computation

1. Add, subtract, multiply, and divide whole numbers (4069 ÷ 81 ÷ 123, 254 x 17, 16,300 - 100)
2. Add and subtract mixed numbers $\left[\begin{array}{r} 2\frac{1}{2} \\ -\ 1\frac{1}{4} \\ \hline \end{array}\right]$
3. Multiply whole numbers or money by fractions (halves, quarters, thirds)
4. Add, subtract, multiply, and divide decimal numbers like money
5. Change a fraction to a decimal ($\frac{1}{4}$ to .25)
6. Find a percent of a number in situations such as simple interest, discounts, commissions, and taxes
7. Use ratio and proportion (mixtures, recipes, scale drawings)
8. Use simple formulas ($A = \ell \times w$)

(c) Estimation and Approximation

1. Round off numbers to a specified place
2. Approximate the answer to a computation problem (including discounts and percentages)
3. Estimate length, weight/mass, capacity, time, temperature, area, and volume
4. Estimate with money

(d) Measurement and Geometry

1. Choose an appropriate unit of measurement in the U.S. customary system (for example, feet, pounds, and gallons)
2. Choose an appropriate unit of measurement in the metric system (for example, meters, kilograms, and liters)
3. Choose an appropriate measurement instrument involving both U.S. customary and metric units
4. Convert common measurements within the same system
5. Read a scale drawing
6. Use a map to compute highway distances
7. Relate total cost and cost per unit
8. Compute by using temperature
9. Compute by using time
10. Identify right angles and parallel, perpendicular, and intersecting lines like those in a street map
11. Recognize that an object has the shape of a square, rectangle, triangle, or parallelogram
12. Identify the radius, diameter, and center of a circle
13. Recognize that an object has the shape of a cube, cylinder, or sphere
14. Find the perimeter of a triangle, square, and rectangle
15. Find the area of a triangle, square, and rectangle
16. Find the volume of a cube or other rectangular solid

(e) Graphs and Tables
1. Read a table
2. Interpret a bar graph
3. Interpret a circle graph
4. Interpret a line graph

(f) Prediction of Events and Statistics
1. Understand probabilities like those used in weather forecasting or lotteries (the chance something will or will not happen)
2. Find and use averages (mean and median) for a group of numbers

40.05: Evaluation of Basic Skills Achievement

(1) Each public school district shall evaluate each student's achievement of minimum standards at least once during the early elementary, later elementary and secondary levels.

(a) Evaluation of student achievement of minimum standards in reading, writing and mathematics shall begin no later than the end of the 1980-81 school year.

(b) Evaluation of student achievement of minimum standards in listening and speaking shall begin no later than the end of the 1981-82 school year.

(2) Each public school district shall determine at which grade or grades at the early elementary, later elementary, and secondary levels students shall be evaluated for the achievement of minimum standards, provided that secondary level students shall first be evaluated no later than the beginning of grade nine.

(3) Once a public school district has determined at which secondary grade level to begin the evaluation of student achievement of minimum standards, it shall provide for an evaluation of student achievement of minimum standards at least once at each succeeding grade level until the student has achieved the minimum standards. A secondary level student who has achieved the minimum standards for a basic skill need not be evaluated again in that skill.

(4) At the early and later elementary levels, each public school district shall determine which evaluation instruments shall be used to evaluate student achievement of minimum standards.

(5) At the secondary level, each public school district shall have the option of using one or more of the following evaluation instruments to evaluate student achievement of minimum standards:

(a) Evaluation instruments available from the Department of Education;

(b) Commercially available evaluation instruments approved by the Department of Education; or

(c) Locally utilized or developed evaluation instruments approved by the Department of Education as being comparable to either (a) or (b).

(6) In accordance with Section 4.03 of the Chapter 622 Regulations Pertaining to Access to Equal Educational Opportunity as adopted by the Board of Education, a public school district shall not use an evaluation instrument which discriminates on the basis of race, color, sex, religion or national origin.

(7) After an evaluation of a student's achievement of minimum standards, each public school district shall give the student and his or her parent the opportunity to review the evaluation instruments used and the complete record of the student's achievement level. The complete record of a student's achievement level shall include, but not necessarily be limited to, the corrected responses of the student on the evaluation instruments used, and shall be maintained as part of the student's temporary record pursuant to the Student Records Regulations as adopted by the Board of Education.

40.06: Early Elementary and Later Elementary Level Program Plans

(1) The early elementary and later elementary program plans shall include, but not necessarily be limited to, the following components:

(a) Provision for participation of parents, teachers, administrators, employers, and the general public in the establishment and periodic review of minimum standards and the overall early elementary and later elementary program plans;

(b) Establishment of minimum standards for each basic skill;

(c) Designation of appropriate evaluation instruments;

(d) Provision for appropriate follow-up instructional programs and services to students who have not achieved minimum standards;

(e) Plans for monitoring, evaluating and modifying, as appropriate, the early elementary and later elementary program plans that have been established. These plans shall include such activities as: reviewing elementary programs and curriculum; making necessary program and curriculum changes; conducting appropriate staff development efforts, planned in cooperation with affected staff; and implementing appropriate plans for monitoring and evaluating the outcome of these efforts.

(2) Each public school district shall affirm to the appropriate Regional Education Center, on a form and in a manner prescribed by the Department of Education, that it has established early elementary and later elementary program plans and shall make these plans available to the public.

(a) By August 1, 1980, each public school district shall affirm that it has established early elementary and later elementary program plans in reading, writing and mathematics.

(b) By August 1, 1981, each public school district shall affirm that it has established early elementary and later elementary program plans in listening and speaking.

(3) Each public school district shall implement its early elementary and later elementary program plans for reading, writing and mathematics no later than October 1, 1980 and for listening and speaking no later than October 1, 1981.

40.07: Secondary Level Program Plan

(1) The secondary level program plan shall include, but not necessarily be limited to, the following components:

(a) A description of how parents, employers, teachers, administrators, students and the general public participated in the establishment of the public school district's minimum standards and the overall secondary level program plan;

(b) The secondary level minimum standards established by the public school district and how these secondary level minimum standards include the secondary level basic skills objectives set forth in Section 40.04 of these regulations;

(c) A listing of all evaluation instruments designated by the public school district. If an evaluation instrument designated is not one of those made available by the Department of Education or on a Department of Education approved list, the public school district shall submit the following:

1. a [illegible] for the selected evaluation instruments, with [illegible]ting technical information;
2. [illegible]etailed analysis showing the content match between these instruments and the minimum standards set forth in Section 40.04 of these regulations.

(d) The grade level or levels that the public school district has established for the initial evaluation of secondary level student achievement of minimum standards;

(e) A description of how the public school district will provide, and make generally available to the public, information about its secondary level program plan, including such information as: where in the curriculum basic skills are covered and what diagnostic and follow-up instructional services are available;

(f) A description of the follow-up instructional programs and services that the public school district will provide to students not achieving minimum standards;

(g) Assurances that:

1. present school programs and curricula will be reviewed for all grades in light of the school district's minimum standards and appropriate modifications will be made as necessary;
2. curriculum and instructional services will be reviewed following analysis and reporting of student achievement data;
3. staff development efforts will be planned in consultation with staff affected and will relate to implementation of basic skills improvement programs.

(2) Each public school district shall submit for approval to the appropriate Regional Education Center, on a form and in a manner prescribed by the Department of Education, its secondary level program plan and shall make this plan available to the public.

(a) Each public school district shall submit its secondary level program plan for reading, writing and mathematics no earlier than February 1, 1980 and no later than August 1, 1980.
(b) Each public school district shall submit its secondary level program plan for listening and speaking no earlier than February 1, 1981 and no later than August 1, 1981.

40.08: Approval of Secondary Level Program Plan

(1) Each Regional Education Council or a committee designated by the Council shall review the secondary level program plan of each public school district within its region. Within sixty (60) calendar days of receipt of a public school district's plan, the Regional Education Council shall recommend to the Commissioner of Education approval or disapproval of the secondary level program plan. This recommendation will be based on whether or not the plan contains the information required by Section 40.07 (1) and otherwise complies with these regulations.

(2) Within thirty (30) calendar days of receipt of the Regional Education Council's recommendation on a public school district's secondary level program plan, the Commissioner of Education shall approve or disapprove the secondary level program plan and notify the public school district of its action. If a secondary level program plan is not approved, this notification shall state the reasons for the disapproval.

(3) Each public school district shall implement the secondary level program plan for reading, writing and mathematics approved by the Commissioner of Education within thirty (30) days of notification of such approval or by October 1, 1980, whichever occurs later.

(4) Each public school district shall implement the secondary level program plan for listening and speaking approved by the Commissioner of Education within thirty (30) days of notification of such approval or by October 1, 1981, whichever occurs later.

(5) Upon notification that a secondary level program plan has been disapproved, a public school district shall have thirty (30) calendar days to submit an amended secondary level program plan to the appropriate Regional Education Center. Within thirty (30) calendar days of receipt of an amended secondary level program plan, the Regional Education Council or a committee designated by the Council shall review the amended secondary level program plan and recommend to the Commissioner of Education that the amended plan be either approved or disapproved. If the amended secondary level program plan is approved, the public school district shall implement this plan within thirty (30) calendar days of notification.

(6) Each public school district may change its approved secondary level program plan by submitting an amendment to its program plan to the appropriate Regional Education Center. The Regional Education Council

or a committee designated by the Council shall review the amendment to the program plan and recommend to the Commissioner of Education that the amendment be approved or disapproved in accordance with the provisions of this section. No new secondary level program plan shall be implemented in place of an approved secondary level program plan until it has been approved by the Commissioner of Education.

40.09: Annual Report on Basic Skills Improvement Programs

(1) Beginning with the 1980-81 school year, each public school district shall submit an Annual Report, on a form and in a manner prescribed by the Department of Education, on the implementation of its basic skills improvement program. The Annual Report shall include the number and percentage of students by race, sex, and linguistic minority who have and have not achieved the minimum standards for each basic skill established by the public school district for the early elementary, later elementary and secondary levels. The Annual Report shall be submitted to the appropriate Regional Education Center by August 31 for the school year ending the previous June 30.

(a) For the 1980-81 school year, and each year thereafter, each public school district shall decide which grade or grades within the early and later elementary levels shall be used to report the number and percentage of students who have and have not achieved minimum standards.

(b) For the 1980-81 school year and each year thereafter, each public school district shall decide which grade or grades within the secondary level shall be used to report the number and percentage of students who have and have not achieved minimum standards, provided that, for the 1982-83 school year and each year thereafter, each public school district shall report the number and percentage of students who have completed eleventh or twelfth grade and who have and have not achieved minimum standards.

(2) Each public school district shall release and make generally available to the public the Annual Report required by subsection (1), and shall take reasonable steps to insure that the people residing in the public school district are informed of the content and availability of the Annual Report.

40.10: Transfer Students, Students in Special Education Programs, and Students of Limited English Ability

(1) public school district may exempt any student who transfers into its school district after having completed the tenth grade in another district from the annual reporting requirements of Section 40.09.

(2) The evaluation team responsible for developing a student's Individual Educational Plan in accordance with General Laws, Chapter 71B and the Chapter 766 Regulations shall determine whether a student in need of special education shall be evaluated for achievement of the minimum standards provided for by these regulations, in addition to the

objectives contained in the Individual Educational Plan, and whether the result of such an evaluation shall be included in the public school district's annual report submitted pursuant to Section 40.09. The evaluation team's determination shall be included in the student's Individual Educational Plan.

(3) Each public school district shall exempt, from all provisions of these regulations, students who have limited English ability as defined by General Laws, Chapter 71A. Notwithstanding the previous sentence, students who have completed an appropriate transitional bilingual education program in accordance with General Laws, Chapter 71A and the Regulations for Use in Administering Programs in Transitional Bilingual Education adopted by the Board of Education shall be considered as any other students for the purpose of these regulations.

40.11: Advisory Committee on Basic Skills Improvement

(1) The Board of Education shall establish an Advisory Committee on Basic Skills Improvement to advise on matters related to the implementation of the Board of Education's Policy on Basic Skills Improvement and these regulations.

(a) Until June 30, 1979, the Policy Committee on High School Graduation Requirements established by the Board of Education on June 28, 1977 shall serve as the Advisory Committee.

(b) On or before July 1, 1979, the Board of Education shall appoint no less than 25 people to serve as voting members of the Advisory Committee. Members shall be appointed for two year terms, and may be reappointed for an additional two year term. No member may serve for more than two terms. If an Advisory Committee member does not complete the appointed term, the Board of Education may appoint a member to fill the unexpired term and this member may, upon reappointment, serve two consecutive full terms. Subject to appropriation, members of the Advisory Committee shall be reimbursed for expenses necessarily incurred in the performance of their official duties.

(2) Beginning in 1980, the Advisory Committee shall submit an annual report to the Board of Education on or before September 30 of each year to cover the preceding school year.

40.12: Waiver

The Board of Education may, upon written application of a public school district and recommendation of the appropriate Regional Education Council and Commissioner of Education, grant a waiver of part or all of the requirements of these regulations for good cause.

40.13: Severance Clause

If any provision contained in these regulations or the application thereof to any person or circumstance is held invalid by a court of competent jurisdiction, the remaining provisions of these regulations or the application of the provision in question to other persons not similarly situated or to other circumstances shall not be affected thereby.

Gregory R. Anrig, Commissioner of Education

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
Department of Education

31 St. James Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02116

September 6, 1978

MEMORANDUM FOR: School Committee Chairpersons
Superintendents of Schools
Other Interested Persons

On August 29, 1978, the State Board of Education unanimously approved the attached Policy on Basic Skills Improvement. This action follows almost three years of development, public deliberation and revision of the proposed Policy based on advice from the public and from the educational community. The final Policy has received general support from the Massachusetts Association of School Committees, the Massachusetts Association of School Superintendents, the Massachusetts Secondary School Principals Association, the Massachusetts Association of Elementary Principals and the Massachusetts Teachers Association.

The Board gave preliminary approval to the Policy on Basic Skills Improvement in June. This document then was widely disseminated and suggestions invited to improve the Policy. On the basis of this additional reaction, changes have been made in sections 2, 5a, 7, and section 3d was added.

The Board and I encourage you to use this Policy on Basic Skills Improvement as a means to examine the issues of standards and educational quality in the instructional programs of your schools. The 1978-79 school year hopefully provides all of us with a chance to focus more on learning than circumstances facing public education in the Commonwealth have allowed in recent years. We hope you will use this Policy as a vehicle to focus time and attention on the results of our educational investment in the intellectual growth of children. In doing so we will not only be responding to public concern, but we also will be fulfilling the motivation and hopes that attracted all of us to service in public education.

Gregory R. Anrig
Commissioner of Education

POLICY ON BASIC SKILLS IMPROVEMENT

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS

Approved: August 23, 1973

Publication #12647 approved by Alfred D. Sullivan,
State Purchasing Agent

Policy on Basic Skills Improvement

In November 1975, the State Board of Education began a major policy review of the need for minimum standards for high school graduation in Massachusetts. An ad hoc advisory committee was formed by the Board in March 1976 to assist with this review. In June 1977, the Board expanded this advisory group and formally established the Advisory Committee on High School Graduation Requirements. The Committee was charged to carefully study and prepare recommendations for the Board regarding the establishment of minimum standards of competency in certain basic skill areas to be achieved by students prior to graduation from high school. After more than two years of deliberations on this subject, including public hearings and meetings in all regions of the Commonwealth, the Board has received the Advisory Committee's conclusions and recommendations.

The Board of Education endorses the Report of the Advisory Committee on High School Graduation requirements (attached). It adopts its recommendations as indicated below, modified on the basis of formal position papers received from the Massachusetts Association of School Committees, the Massachusetts Association of School Superintendents, the Massachusetts Teachers Association, the Massachusetts Association of Secondary School Principals, the Massachusetts Middle/Junior High School Principals Association, the Massachusetts Association of Elementary School Principals, and the State Student Advisory Council.

Throughout the two years of public discussion, certain conclusions became clear:

- There is a problem that needs correcting. Parents, teachers, students, administrators, school committee members, employers, Board of Education members, and the general public are not satisfied with the level of basic skills competency some students demonstrate by the time of graduation from high school. No major objection was raised by any group about the existence of a problem during two years of deliberations.

- To a great extent, the credibility of public schools and the educational community depends upon the degree to which the public believes this problem is being addressed vigorously and corrected in the immediate future.

- Resolution of this problem should provide for maximum local involvement under the leadership of school committees and school superintendents.

- The State Board of Education has a responsibility for providing leadership and assistance so that the problem of basic skills competency is identified appropriately and corrective action is taken locally to address this problem constructively.

- Efforts to improve competency in the basic skills should begin before the high school level. Emphasis should be on diagnosing learning needs and adjusting the regular curriculum to these needs so that all students can attain minimum standards, rather than on testing and retention.

The Board of Education stresses that the purpose of this Policy is to improve the attainment of basic skills competency by students in public schools of the Commonwealth. Specifically, the Board adopts the Advisory Committee's position that:

> "The purpose of a basic skills competency program is to assist all students in achieving mastery of basic skills prior to high school graduation through the provision of appropriate curriculum, instruction, and evaluation."

To accomplish this purpose, the Board of Education approves the following plan:

1. Each school committee will have the responsibility to establish minimum standards for basic skills competency in the areas indicated in #2 below, at the early elementary, later elementary and secondary grade levels by no later than September 1980.

   a. School committees will decide by which specific grade or grades these standards should be attained and how they will be measured at each of the levels above.

b. School committees will provide for public participation in the development and periodic review of these minimum standards by parents, teachers, administrators, employers, and - at the secondary level - by students.

2. Each school committee will have the responsibility to establish minimum standards for the basic skills areas of mathematics, reading and writing by no later than September 1980 and minimum standards for the basic skills areas of listening and speaking by no later than September, 1981.

   a. At the early elementary and later elementary levels, the minimum standards will be determined by each school committee.

   b. At the secondary level, school committees will have the responsibility to establish minimum standards which incorporate and are no less than the specifications for mathematics and communications (reading, writing, listening, speaking) recommended by the Advisory Committee on High School Graduation Requirements, subject to continued refinement of these specifications by the Advisory Committee in early 1978-79.

3. Each school committee will have the responsibility for evaluating the basic skills competency of each student at the early elementary, later elementary and secondary levels.

   a. School committees will decide at which grade or grades an evaluation will take place for each level, provided that at the secondary level this evaluation will be initiated no later than the beginning of grade 9. Once a secondary student has demonstrated proficiency on the secondary level basic skills competency test(s) he or she will not have to be tested again for this purpose.

b. School committees will have the responsibility to decide which evaluation instrument or instruments will be used at the early elementary and later elementary levels.

c. At the secondary level, school committees will have the option of using (1) a basic skills competency test developed by the State Department of Education, (2) commercially available tests from a list approved by the State Department of Education, or (3) locally utilized or developed tests approved by the State Department of Education as being comparable to either (1) or (2).

d. Students and parents should be given the opportunity to see the corrected evaluation instruments so they can be informed of strengths and weaknesses in basic skills competency.

e. School committees are encouraged to review their existing testing programs with the aim of incorporating this Policy within existing expenditures for student testing. These expenditures will be reimburseable under state aid.

4. Each school committee shall annually certify and report to the public and to the State Board of Education the number and percentage of students who have and have not attained the minimum standards for basic skills competency determined by the school committee for the early elementary, later elementary and secondary levels. By no later than 1982-83, the data reported for the secondary level will be for grade 11 or 12.

5. The provisions of this Policy shall be applied as follows to students in special education and bilingual education programs as defined by applicable state laws.

a. The application of minimum standards for basic skills competency to students determined to be in need of special education in accordance with G. L. Chapter 71B (Chapter 766) shall be at the determination of the evaluation team responsible for developing and approving the Individual Educational Plan for each special needs student. The evaluation team shall determine whether the special needs student should be evaluated in terms of the minimum standards for basic skills competency and whether the results of this evaluation should be included in the aggregate test results in #4 above. Such decisions should be recorded in the Individual Education Plan.

b. Students identified, screened and enrolled in programs governed by G. L. Chapter 71A (Transitional Bilingual Education Act) shall not be subject to the provisions of this Policy. Students who have completed Transitional Bilingual Education programs in accordance with G. L. Chapter 71A shall be considered as any other student under this Policy.

6. The purpose of this Policy is for school committees to determine minimum expectations for basic skills competency for the regular educational program of the public schools in Massachusetts. The educational specifications for mathematics and communications skills recommended by the Advisory Committee on High School Graduation Requirements were developed by teachers on the basis of what should be minimum instructional expectations from the regular curriculum offerings of public schools. If these expectations are not being adequately fulfilled, the regular curriculum should be adjusted or modified. The purpose of the Policy is not to establish a new or separate instructional program beyond the support services normally provided in public schools of the Commonwealth.

a. If, by the beginning of grade 11, a student has not been able to satisfactorily attain the minimum standards of basic skills competency as determined by each school committee, the principal of the school attended by the student shall determine whether the student should be referred for evaluation in accordance with the Chapter 766 Regulations (Section 315.1) to determine if that student needs special education. (Nothing contained herein should preclude referral at an earlier grade level in accordance with normal practices of school districts under Chapter 71B.)

b. The purpose both of the minimum standards and the evaluations called for by this Policy is to assist in diagnosing student needs and in identifying curriculum areas which should be adjusted or modified. The purpose is not to establish a new condition for promotion or graduation. These policies of school committees should continue to be based on several criteria and several sources of information rather than on any single test.

7. The Board of Education's Regional Education Councils, with the assistance of a subcommittee designated by the Council, and with staff support from the Department of Education, shall be responsible for reviewing the implementation of the Policy on Basic Skills Improvement in each region.

a. By September 1980, each school committee shall affirm to the appropriate Department Regional Education Center that it has established the program called for by this Policy at the early elementary and later elementary levels.

b. By September 1980, each school committee shall submit to the appropriate Department Regional Education Center its secondary level program for basic skills improvement. The Regional Education Council shall review each

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school committee's plan based on the criteria contained in the Advisory Committee's Report and recommend approval to the Board of Education if said plan fulfills the requirements of this Policy.

8. The Board directs the Department of Education to prepare requests for the Fiscal Year 1980 Department of Education budget recommendations to the Governor which include staffing to provide the technical assistance needed by school districts to implement this Policy. Further, the Board will proceed to encourage public institutions of higher education to assist in the implementation of this Policy, and will seek funding from the Great and General Court for the Commonwealth In-Service Institute to enable the Institute to aid school districts in implementing this policy.

9. The Board designates the Advisory Committee on High School Graduation Requirements to serve as the principal advisory committee on matters related to this Policy. It further directs that the Advisory Committee complete as early as possible in 1978-79 the specifications for minimum standards in mathematics and communication skills, and begin the development of optional minimum standards for consideration by school committees in areas earlier considered by the Advisory Committee such as career information, social responsibility, environment and the arts.

10. The Board has been convinced that it should not, at this time, adopt a policy which makes awarding of the high school diploma contingent on satisfactory performance on any single test of basic skills competency. This Policy, as adopted, fulfills the intent of the Board to improve basic skills competency in partnership with local school officials. On the basis of local experience in the implementation of this Policy, however, the Board will review the need for and

feasibility of including basic skills competency as one of the requirements for a diploma in the future. It directs the Advisory Committee on High School Graduation Requirements to review this matter after implementation of local minimum standards beginning in 1980-81 and to report to the Board on this issue no later than June 1983.

REPORT OF THE MASSACHUSETTS ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

June, 1978

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

I. INTRODUCTION

The Advisory Committee on High School Graduation Requirements was given the task by the State Board of Education of studying the feasibility of a competency test of basic skills program for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The Advisory Committee was asked to make recommendations relative to such a competency assessment program which the State Board could incorporate into a policy for the schools of Massachusetts.

After many months of studying the subject of basic skills competency testing and discussing proposals to recommend to the State Board of Education in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, the full Advisory Committee met on May 9 and 10, 1978 to develop a body of recommendations for the State Board of Education which should be adopted as a policy on basic skills competency assessment. The Advisory Committee concentrated its efforts on recommendations submitted by the Policy Committee which were further refined by the twelve member Steering Committee.

The recommendations which follow are based upon some general conclusions reached by a majority of the Advisory Committee's members. These are stated at the outset because they establish a frame of reference for what follows:

1. The Advisory Committee feels that the State Board of Education must take a strong leadership role relative to basic skills competency assessment in the school districts of Massachusetts. The Committee is well aware of the pressures on the State Board of Education from various publics to address vigorously the alleged lack of minimal competency in basic skills on the part of a number of high school graduates. This public concern is evidenced by several bills before the Great and General Court which would mandate some form of statewide competency testing. The Advisory Committee is also aware that this is a national concern. The State Boards of Education in over thirty states have already adopted policies to meet this real or apparent need.

2. The Advisory Committee recognizes that local communities and school districts must play a major role also in the development of a basic skill competency assessment program if it is to benefit the education of the pupils in our schools. Therefore, the Advisory Committee recommends a concept of competency testing and a set of guidelines that allow local school districts to develop much of the details of a basic skills competency assessment program including selection of testing instruments and procedures to be used. This will encourage input from community agencies and citizens to local school districts and generate support for school personnel who must implement the program locally.

As a result of this basic skills competency assessment program, local school districts will benefit from an evaluation of the basic skills assessment data and be able to make positive changes in the curriculum and instruction to meet documented needs.

3. The Advisory Committee on several occasions during its deliberations opposed proposals which would recommend to the State Board of Education that it mandate passing a test or tests of basic skills competency as a requirement for high school graduation at this time. The Committee opposed the concept of the State requiring local districts to administer a State test of basic skills competency as a graduation requirement. The Advisory Committee has had the advantage of being able to review and evaluate competency test programs in other states, the reports of consultants, articles in professional journals, reports, position papers of professional associations and organizations, and letters of educators and citizens as bases for its recommendations.

Competency testing of basic skills is a relatively recent movement and can mean a variety of things. In its broadest context, it refers to the assessment of a person's skills proficiency, knowledge of facts, and understanding of concepts. In the current and narrow sense, competency testing is thought of as an assessment of the ability of a person to apply certain skills and concepts to answer questions or to respond to situations that one would experience in ordinary activity in his or her environment. A competency test in this context differs from the achievement tests currently used at different grade levels in most of our schools. These tests contain a preponderance of questions or items that are based upon the curriculum assumed to be taught in our schools and provide good diagnostic information for administrators and teachers.

The competency tests developed in the last few years are designed to measure a pupil's ability or competency to apply basic skills and, therefore, attempt to respond to the wave of criticism by various segments of the public, who insist that increasing numbers of high school graduates are not able to do simple tasks requiring basic skills.

The Committee feels that competency tests currently in vogue could not appropriately be given before grades 8 or 9. However, identifying pupils at an early age who have not mastered skills and concepts by an appropriate time should be a primary purpose of competency testing. Therefore, the use of curriculum-based diagnostic achievement tests rather than "competency tests" would provide a better means of earlier identification of pupils in need of additional basic skills development.

Although information gained from "competency tests" would be useful and possibly valid, the efforts of staff and resources of school districts would be much better spent in the development of a more structured and organized approach to teaching the basic skills in the curriculum. Monitoring pupil progress in learning basic skills from the earliest years in school and in providing instructional help and support as soon as the need becomes apparent, was of paremount importance to the Committee.

Also, both Task Forces considered the competency tests now available for purchase and found that none of the commercially prepared tests fulfilled the specifications established by the Task Forces. Therefore, the Task Forces developed their own assessment instruments. The Mathematics Task Force wrote many of the test items, and the Communications Task Force revised those items presented to them. It can be said that all assessment instruments faithfully adhere to the specifications established by the Task Forces, and the successful field testing indicates that the specifications reflect what can be done in the school setting.

Some other reasons which led the Advisory Committee to the above conclusion are:

Graduation requirements in the Commonwealth, at the present time, are school requirements related to prescribed courses of study established by local school committees for their respective student populations. There is no assurance, at this time, that a State imposed competency test will deal with the content with which all of the students in a school district have been exposed to in their school experience.

A test of minimum competency as a requirement for graduation may lead to a diminution of the importance of attaining as much proficiency as a student can in relation to his or her potential.

The institution of a competency test as a requirement for high school graduation, at this time, would place the burden on the weaker academic achiever and hold him or her accountable in a 'de facto' situation.

It would be premature to impose a State competency requirement for graduation, at this time, without allowing school districts to conduct a critical analysis of their instructional requirements for goals, and a focus on the curriculum, instruction and assessment resources available in the school district.

Not requiring a competency test for graduation, at this time, would allow local school districts an opportunity to develop a formative assessment plan for monitoring student achievement of identified competencies before instituting a summary-type competency test in Grades 9 through 12 as a condition for graduation from high school.

The Advisory Committee recommends that the competency testing program in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts mandate assessment of basic skills achievement at the earliest grade levels feasible and at each appropriate grade level thereafter to (1) monitor individual achievement and progress, (2) provide early instructional help to pupils with diagnosed needs, (3) evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum and instruction, and (4) make appropriate changes and improvements in the total educational program.

Local school districts could if they so desire require the achievement of a certain level of competency in the basic skills as a prerequisite for graduation, but this would not be a State mandate at this time.

Each of the Advisory Committee's recommendations was voted upon individually. A record of the voting is available upon request.

A PROPOSED POLICY FOR A BASIC SKILLS COMPETENCY PROGRAM

PURPOSE

The purpose of a basic skills competency program is to assist all students in achieving mastery of basic skills prior to high school graduation through the provision of appropriate curriculum, instruction, and evaluation. The areas of communications and mathematics are indentified as the areas to be developed in the first phase.

Students need basic skills in order to achieve higher order skills such as interpretation, analysis, synthesis, and judgement, as well as to acquire knowledge, and to learn by practice and experience to apply their skills and knowledge to life situations.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The Advisory Committee recommends that...

1. No state policy be adopted that requires the passing of a competency test or tests as a requirement for high school graduation for at least five years.

2. The State Board of Education at this time identify the basic skills areas as those recommended by the task forces of the advisory committee. The basic skills areas are as follows: Mathematics-Exhibit I; Reading-Exhibit II, Writing-Exhibit III; Listening/Speaking-Exhibit IV.

   2.1 These basic areas, as specified, may be further developed based upon input from local districts, community agencies and citizens.

3. The State Board of Education require each local school district to establish a basic skills competency program relative to the above areas.

4. The local school district will submit for approval to the State Board of Education, through a regional review process, a plan for a basic skills competency program which includes each point (4.1 - 4.9). The purpose of the plan will be to indicate the means by which the local school district will certify that pupils have or have not achieved specified basic skills competencies. More specifically, the local district will provide for...

   4.1 Specification of basic skills competencies and a description of methods by which they were adopted.

      i. The local school district will establish specific basic skills competencies through broad community and staff involvement which supplement those basic skills areas specified by the State.

   4.2 Description of assessment procedures and instruments used in measuring student achievement in basic skills competency areas.

i. The local school district may develop its own measurement instruments subject to state approval or may select from measurement instruments developed or approved by the state.

ii. Local school district monitoring of each student's acquisition of basic skills should begin in the primary grades.

4.3 Specification of performance criteria to be used in determining student achievement in basic skills competencies.

4.4 Description of procedures for reporting to parents, students, teachers and administrators following each student's competency assessment.

i. The local school district will publish information annually and include:

a) Where in the curriculum competency areas are covered.

b) What diagnostic and follow up instructional services are available.

c) What local basic skills competency requirements there may be for high school graduation.

ii. The information will be distributed to all parents, stucents and administrators.

4.5 Report of aggregate assessment data.

i. The local school district will include a description of the procedures used to analyze, report and publish the aggregate data locally.

4.6 Assurances that appropriate follow up instructional programs and services are provided to individual students not demonstrating achievement in basic skills competencies following each competency assessment.

i. The local school district will provide assurances of appropriate diagnostic and follow up instructional programs relating to the achievement of the basic skills competencies.

4.7 Description of a plan for monitoring , evaluating and modifying the basic skills competencies.

i. The local school district will review present school programs and curriculum for all grades in light of its established specified competencies and make appropriate modifications as necessary.

ii. The local school district will provide assurances that instructional services and programs leading to the achievement of the competencies are available to all students.

iii. The local school district will make provision for a review of curriculum and instruction following an analysis and reporting of student achievement data.

iv. The local school district will provide assurances of appropriate staff development efforts that have been planned in consultation with staff affected and that relate to implementation of the basic skills competency program.

4.8 Assurances of compliance with State Board of Education's guidelines for exemptions, waivers and appeals for students with specialized needs.

5. The State Board of Education will:

5.1 Establish a regional review process through which the local school district's basic skills competency program must be approved.

5.2 Make available to the local school district consultant and technical assistance to help in planning and implementing the basic skills competency program.

5.3 Develop policies for exemptions, waivers and appeals for students as well as for school districts affected by basic skills competency program requirements.

5.4 Launch a public information program to explain the purpose and potential of the State Board of Education's policy on competency program development.

5.5 Through the State Assessment Program, provide for a continual, longitudinal study of the impact of its competency program policy.

5.6 Provide adequate funds and staff as a precondition for implementation of this program.

EXHIBIT I

SPECIFICATIONS FOR MATHEMATICS

A. Numbers and Numeration Concepts
   1. Recognize number symbols, whole numbers, fractions, decimals, and exponents
   2. Identify odd and even numbers
   3. Count by 10's and multiply and divide by powers of 10
   4. Put numbers in numerical order
   5. Understand ratio and proportion
   6. Recognize equivalent fractions

B. Arithmetic Computations
   1. Add and subtract whole numbers
   2. Multiply a three digit whole number by a two digit whole number
   3. Divide a four digit whole number by a two digit whole number
   4. Add and subtract two mixed numbers
   5. Multiply and divide whole numbers or money by fractions
   6. Perform operations with decimal numbers
   7. Change a fraction to a decimal
   8. Find a percent of a number in situations such as simple interest, discounts, commissions, and taxes
   9. Solve simple word problems using temperature and time

C. Uses of Variables
   1. Use a variable as a place-holder in a mathematical expression
   2. Use juxtaposition as an abbreviation for multiplication
   3. Use simple formulas

D. Estimation and Approximation
   1. Round off numbers to the nearest tenth, hundredth, and thousandth
   2. Multiply by 10, 100, and 1000
   3. Approximate the answer to a computation problem
   4. Approximate discounts, money, percents, and totals
   5. Estimate length, weight/mass, capacity, time, temperature, area, and volume
   6. Estimate by making comparisions with convenient known measures
   7. Estimate by rounding up to the number of dollars needed to purchase several items

E. Measurement and Geometry
   1. Choose an appropriate measurement instrument involving both customary and metric units
   2. Read scale drawings
   3. Use a map to compute highway distances
   4. Choose an appropriate unit of measurement, metric or customary
   5. Compute the total cost, given cost per unit

EXHIBIT I (cont'd)

6. Convert common measurements within the same system
7. Identify parallel, perpendicular, and intersecting lines
8. Identify a right angle
9. Identify a square, rectangle, triangle, and parallelogram
10. Identify a right triangle
11. Identify radius, diameter, and center as related to circles
12. Identify a cube, cylinder, and sphere
13. Find the perimeter and area of a triangle, square, rectangle, and parallelogram
14. Find the volume of a cube or rectangular solid

E. Graphs and Tables
1. Interpret a bar graph
2. Interpret a circle graph
3. Interpret a line graph
4. Read a table
5. Interpret a step graph

F. Prediction of Events and Statistics
1. Determine the probability that an event will occur
2. Determine the probability of the complement of an event
3. Find and use the arithmetic mean and median for a group of numbers

SPECIFICATIONS FOR READING

EXHIBIT II

The committee has divided the basic reading competencies into four divisions merely for efficiency of report. In no way does this division mean to suggest a hierarchial structure. The four aspects of reading exist concurrently. It is only the task's relative sophistication which determines its position on the learning continuum.

A. BASIC WORD RECOGNITION

1. Recognize and recall words.
2. Comprehend word meanings in context:
   a. recognize and recall the meaning of high frequency words accurately and quickly.
   b. recognize the components of a word:
      1) roots
      2) affixes
      3) compound words
      4) variants
      5) derivatives

B. LITERAL COMPREHENSION

1. Understand the explicit meaning of written phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and longer modes of discourse.
2. Understand and follow directions.
3. Recognize the main parts of a written passage:
   a. main idea
   b. supporting details
   c. recapitulative conclusion.
4. Ability to sequence:
   a. chronological
   b. spatial
5. Identify organizational patterns of development:
   a. general↔specific
   b. concrete↔abstract
   c. comparison↔contrast
   d. important↔unimportant
6. Understand explicit meaning of charts, maps, graphs, etc.

C. INTERPRETIVE COMPREHENSION

1. Recognize unstated relationships in a written passage:
   a. draw a conclusion through appropriate inferences.
   b. generate a principle from a series of details or specifics.
2. See and explain the implicit steps of a process:
   a. make implicit steps explicit.
   b. recognize comparable steps in similar processes.
3. Translate idiomatic expressions into its literal meaning (e.g. advertising)

D. EVALUATE COMPREHENSION

1. Make judgements about the ideas found in a passage:
   a. between accurate and inaccurate information.
   b. differentiate between essential and non-essential information.
   c. differentiate between fact and opinion.
   d. detect false or specious logic.
2. Make judgements about the method of presentation found in a passage:
   a. recognize propoganda techniques.
   b. recognize rhetorical techniques such as those found in journalism and advertising.

EXHIBIT II (Con't.)

EXPOSURE AND MATURATION AWARENESS EXPERIENCES

Listed below are seven general reading experiences that students should repeatedly encounter during their secondary school education. The subcommittee believes that these experiences can be credentialized more effectively by professional observation rather than by any form of testing.

To complete the competency requirements in reading, the student will have participated in:

1. A variety of reading experiences which include reading for information and reading for pleasure.

2. A variety of reading experiences designed to develop personal values.

3. A variety of reading experiences emphasizing the universality of man and demonstrating that this quality transcends the limits of time or geography.

4. A variety of library experiences which develop the ability to know and to use library resources.

5. The study of various literary genres.

6. The oral interpretation of the written word.

7. A variety of reading activities which will develop the ability to relate what is being read to real or imagined experiences.

Although books are consumable objects, they are the traditional means by which learning and thought is transmitted and maintained. Consequently, their value is high. Books are not to be willfully mutilated, are not to be scorned, are not to be destroyed. A healthy rational respect of books as objects is the keynote of an "aware" reader.

EXHIBIT III

SPECIFICATIONS FOR WRITING

A. Substance

Does the writer have something to say?

Does the writing clearly target a specific audience?

1. Knowledge

   Does the student demonstrate knowledge of the subject?

   a. Are general statements supported with specific details?
   b. Is the writing credible?

2. Purpose

   Does the writer have a reason for saying something?

   a. Is the purpose clear?
   b. Is it consistent?
   c. Is it logical?

3. Organization

   Are the ideas sensibly arranged?

   a. Is the writing unified?
   b. Is it clear?
   c. Is it logical?
   d. Does the writing progress from one point to another?
   e. Are there appropriate connections or transitions?
   f. Is the organization of the writing appropriate?
      1) to the purpose?
      2) to the audience?

4. Diction

   Does the writer choose precise words?

   1. Do the words help the audience to see, taste, feel, hear, smell, touch?
   2. Is vocabulary appropriate?
      a) to the audience?
      b) to the purpose?

5. Completeness

   Does the writer fulfill the purpose?

   a. Is adequate information provided?
   b. Is the writing free of irrelevancy?
   c. Does the conclusion effectively reemphasize the purpose?

B. Mechanics

Does the writer follow the conventions of writing in exposition?

1. Capitalization

   Have proper nouns, proper adjectives, and beginnings of sentences been capitalized?

EXHIBIT III (Cont'd.)

2. Punctuation

Has the writer used punctuation marks appropriately?

a. Terminal: period, question mark, explanation point?
b. Internal: comma, apostrophe, semi-colon, quotation marks and colon?

3. Spelling

Is the writing reasonably free of spelling error, particularly words used in conventional writing?

a. Does the writer demonstrate mastery of common spelling rules?
b. Does the writer demonstrate correct spelling of unusual words, given the help of a dictionary?

4. Handwriting

Is handwriting legible?

C. Language Usuage

In expository writing has the writer used standard written English appropriate to the situation?

1. Agreement
Do the subjects and verbs and pronouns and antecedents agree?
2. Verbs
a. Are the standard forms of irregularly inflected verbs used correctly?
b. Is the tense consistent?
3. Sentence structure
Is the writing free from sentence fragments and/or run-on sentences?
4. Adjective/adverb confusion
Are adjectives and adverbs used correctly?
5. Is the writing free from the use of double negatives?

III. APPLICATIONS FOR WRITING SKILLS

A. Social

1. Informal
a. Messages
b. Personal letters
c. Thank-you notes
d. Directions

2. Formal
a. Invitations
b. Acceptances
c. Polite refusals

B. Business/Vocational

1. Formal letters
a. Business orders
b. Requests for adjustments
c. Letters of applications including personal qualifications
1) Employment
2) College

EXHIBIT III (Cont'd.)

2. Application forms
   a. Drivers License
   b. Employment
   c. Order
3. Reports
   a. Accident
   b. Presentation of facts
   c. Expression of opinion
   d. News events
   e. Meetings

C. Civic
1. Letters to:
   a. The editor
   b. Public officials or political leaders
2. Presentations to:
   a. Community groups
   b. Peer groups
3. Statements of opinion on social & political concerns
4. TV/radio editorial comments

D. Academic
1. Narrative
2. Description
3. Synopsis
4. Essay
5. Research report
6. Dialogue
7. Outline
8. Response to literature

EXHIBIT IV

SPECIFICATIONS FOR LISTENING

A. PLAIN - SENSE COMPREHENSION

1. Identifying main ideas

2. Remembering significant details

3. Remembering simple sequences of ideas

4. Understanding denotative meanings of important words

B. INTERPRETATION

1. Understanding implications of main ideas

2. Understanding implications of significant details

3. Understanding interrelationships among ideas and the organization pattern of spoken material well enough to predict what will be likely to come next.

C. EVALUATION, APPLICATION

1. Judging validity and adequacy of main ideas and distinguishing fact from fancy and proved statements from opinion and judgement.

2. Judging sufficiency of supporting details in accomplishing their purpose, distinguishing relevant details from the irrelevant, and judging whether or not additional information is needed to prove the speaker's point.

3. Criticizing organization and developemnt of spoken material, being aware of self-contradictions by the speaker, and recognizing the devices the speaker uses to influence the listener's thinking.

4. Judging whether the speaker has created the intended mood or effect - and if he or she has failed, why.

5. Recognizing the intent of the speaker - what he or she wants the listener to do and wevs in which ideas can properly be applied in new situations.

EXHIBIT IV (Con't.)

SPECIFICATIONS FOR SPEAKING

The content specifications for the speaking checklist have been abstracted from thosecompetencies identified in the report of the Listening/Speaking Sub-Committee of the Communication Task Force. It should be noted here that the competencies identified in that report represent a hierarchy of essential listing/speaking skills, not a specific prescription for a test instrument.

SPEAKING COMPETENCIES

A. Relates General Information

1. Focuses on the topic
2. States facts clearly
3. Describes events
4. Explains and clarifies facts or events
5. Emphasizes the main point
6. Tells things in logical order

B. Requests General Information

1. Phrases questions clearly
2. Asks for further information, clarification, reasons or examples
3. Asks relevant follow-up questions

C. Relates Personal Information

1. Expresses agreement or disagreement
2. Expresses pleasure or displeasure
3. Expresses personal values
4. Expresses opinions

D. Requests Personal Information

1. Asks for comments on work
2. Asks about another person's feelings or opinions

E. Modifies Speech in Response to Listeners

1. Uses appropriate content, vocabulary, and voice tone
2. Changes speech as audience changes
3. Relates statements or questions in response to audience statements

F. Uses Speech Persuasively

1. Supports statements with evidence
2. Identifies propaganda techniques
3. Knowingly states opinions
4. Brings out different points of view
5. Raises the next point
6. Proposes a resolution, plan of action, or conclusion

LIST OF WORKING DOCUMENTS

The following documents were utilized by the Advisory Committee on High School Graduation Requirements and incorporated into its final recommendations to the Board of Education.

1. Report of the Communications Competency Task Force — May, 1978
2. Report of the Mathematics Competency Task Force — May, 1978
3. Minimum Competency Measures Demonstration Project — May, 1978
4. Policy Issues in Minimal Competency Testing and a Comparison of Implementation Models — April, 1978
5. Report of Bilingual Education Subcommittee on Essential Competency Standards — May, 1978
6. Report of Special Needs Basic Competencies Task Force — May, 1978

LIST OF CURRENT MEMBERS OF ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON

HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

NAME	AFFILIATION
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Daniel H. Barraford, III	Hersey Products, Dedham
Mildred Berkowitz	English Teacher, Dartmouth Public Schools
Fred Blanchard	Junior High Principal, Randolph Public Schools
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Robert Coelho	Superintendent, Attleboro Public Schools
George Curtin	School Committee, Westfield Public Schools
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Gail Latouf	Student, Boston Public Schools
Stephen Levine	Special Needs Coordinator, Bridgewater Public Schools
Benjamin Levy	Math Teacher, Lexington Public Schools
John Monbouquette	Superintendent, Braintree Public Schools
Helen Moran	Associate Superintendent, Boston Public Schools
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Charlotte Ryan	Massachusetts Parent Teacher Student Association
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Eugene Thayer	Special Education Planning Project, Boston
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David Tobin	Superintendent, Assabet Valley Vocational Regional School District
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NAME	AFFILIATION
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Joseph Warren	Executive Office of Educational Affairs, Boston

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Max Bogart	Curriculum and Instruction
Cecilia DiBella	NIE Dissemination Project
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Helen Lau	Research and Assessment
Les May	Research and Assessment
Joan Schuman	Student Services
Ann Schumer	Springfield Regional Center
Matthew Toole	Research and Assessment
Lynn Wolfsfeld	Research and Assessment

REPORT: 1978/79

In 1978, at the initiative of the School Committee of the City of Boston your public schools changed in major ways. This report gives you, the parent and taxpayer, an account of those changes so as to renew a sense of confidence in your public schools which serve our children.

Throughout most of the 1970's Boston schools have been suffering under crisis management. The time of crisis is over and those now entrusted with the operation of America's oldest public school system are dedicated to restoring that system to its past recognition as one of the nation's best.

THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF THE CITY OF BOSTON

David I. Finnegan, President
Kathleen Sullivan Alioto
John J. McDonough
John D. O'Bryant
Paul R. Tierney

What Is New About The Oldest In America?

REORGANIZATION *What's New?* A management reorganization of the Boston Public Schools became law in July, 1978. (CH. 333, Acts and Resolves of 1978). The law was recommended by a city wide reorganization committee, formed six months earlier by the School Committee.

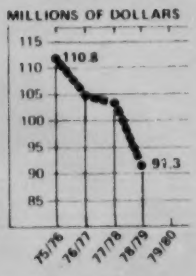
THE PLAN:

- *A STRONGER SUPERINTENDENT AND A MORE EFFICIENT CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION*
  All school operations – business and academic management – are now the responsibility of the Superintendent. This change provides accountability and effective controls and allows the School Committee evaluation of overall progress while abstaining from day-to-day involvement.

BUDGET AND MANAGEMENT *What's New?* Two years ago the School Committee introduced a modern system of business budget management to the Boston Public Schools. Your School Committee played a leadership role with the State Legislature's Special Commission on Unequal Educational Opportunity, which lobbied for a new education formula that significantly increased Boston's share of state education dollars.

THE RESULTS:

- Two year cost savings of 30 million dollars.
- Budget increases below the rate of inflation.
- Reduction of $10 on the School Department's share of the property tax rate.
- Increased support from State and Federal sources – more than 50% of the school department's budget is now reimbursed by the State.



This $18,000,000 reduction represents a $10. reduction in School Department's share of the property tax rate

	1975-1976	1976-1977	1977-1978	1978-1979
School Dept. Spending (millions)	$172.1	$170.5	$173.4	$187.0 (appropriation)*
State & Federal Reimbursements (millions)	– 61.3	– 65.5	– 68.7	(est.) – 95.7
Cost to Tax Payer (millions)	$110.8	$105.0	$104.7	$ 91.3

*Adjusted to allow year to year compatibility

Public School System

SUPERINTENDENT *What's New?* Dr. Robert Wood is new, the unanimous choice of your School Committee. Under contract to serve a four year term as Superintendent, Dr. Wood is a South End resident and was formerly a U.S. Presidential Cabinet Member, President of the University of Massachusetts, Chairman of the Political Science Department at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Because he is experienced in public management as well as an educator and authority on issues concerning urban life, we hope that Dr. Wood, working with our principals and teachers, students and parents, will provide us with the leadership necessary to bring us educational excellence necessary for our times.

DECENTRALIZATION *What's New?* We are strengthening the 9 Community Superintendents and the District Offices (see last page) in order to bring School Department services closer to you and your neighborhood school. Many central administrative positions have been eliminated or reassigned to field positions.

Each District Office is equipped to evaluate the overall curriculum, to spread resources district-wide, and to address the particular strengths and problems of the district. Working with principals and teachers, as well as students and parents, we intend to have education and special concerns such as discipline examined and dealt with at the local level, with all the necessary support from the central offices at 26 Court Street.

Your School Committee is seeking a NEW day for the Boston Public School System. We have generated a progressive withdrawal of the Federal Court from the day-to-day operations of the School Department. We have sought to provide a context for leadership enabling us to work together to build a new urban school system based on the strengths of our city rich in history, culture and professional acumen while forging new models of educational excellence for our city's children.

In the near future we will face together the problems that go with declining enrollments and inflation, with the paramount recognition that we must continue to control spending and reevaluate the use of school facilities.

We recognize our responsibility to create a school system that provides education and discipline as well as job training and preparation for college. We are entrusted with the average and the gifted along with the handicapped and we seek to prepare each for a place in today's society. We welcome your support and your help.

Did You Know?

DID YOU KNOW that the Boston Public Schools have a unique collaboration with the resources of the City?

- 19 Boston Public High Schools are paired with 22 business firms in continuing partnership efforts to improve the quality of educational programs.
- 25 Boston area colleges and universities are paired with 28 Boston Public Schools and 6 Community Districts in a variety of special cooperative programs to enhance regular curriculum offerings.
- 33 Boston area cultural organizations are conducting 93 distinct programs in 98 Boston Public Schools.

DID YOU KNOW that in June, 1978 Boston Public High School graduating seniors received $2.35 million worth of financial aid and scholarships?

DID YOU KNOW that on a regular yearly basis, 19 Boston Public High Schools offer 420 individual awards and scholarships totaling approximately one-half million dollars?

DID YOU KNOW that the organization called School Volunteers for Boston last year provided 2,578 volunteers donating 139,337 hours of service to teachers, students and administrators? These talented volunteers gave their time in such areas as Career Education, English as a Second Language, Reading and Living History.

DID YOU KNOW that the Boston Latin School, founded in 1635 and the oldest school in the Western Hemisphere, currently places more than 98 per cent of its graduates in four-year colleges?

Did You Know?

DID YOU KNOW that in May, 1978, the average Reading Achievement score of students in Grades 1, 2 and 3 in the Boston Public Schools was higher than the national average for those grades?

DID YOU KNOW that the Boston Public Schools last year celebrated the 100th Anniversary of the nation's City-Wide Kindergarten Program and that Boston is the nation's only large city currently providing two years of kindergarten as well as full day programs for kindergarten students?

DID YOU KNOW that in 1978, Boston Public School students had substantially higher achievement scores than their counterparts in the rest of the state on the following Scholastic Aptitude Tests: French, Spanish and Latin?

DID YOU KNOW that Boston's public schools serve not only over 68,000 regular day students but also nearly 20,000 others, mostly adults, who attend classes evenings, Saturday mornings and in the summertime? They include women training as practical nurses and dental assistants, and apprentices and journeymen increasing their skills in many trades such as plumbing, roofing, and carpentry.

DID YOU KNOW that handicapped students in the Boston Public Schools are provided with prevocational and vocational programs recognized as among the nation's best? The goal of these programs is to fortify each of 1500 moderately and severely handicapped students, ranging in age from 6 to 21, with the work skills necessary for a productive adult working life.

DID YOU KNOW that in 1978 the average Scholastic Aptitude Test – Verbal Score of Boston Public School students increased by eleven points over 1977, while the state-wide average increased only one point?

1979...

In 1979, the people of Boston have many reasons to be proud of their city and many reasons to continue striving for improvement. The Boston Public School System is no different. We have fine talents in our teaching staff, an extraordinary set of bonds with the city's businesses, museums, colleges and universities and other cultural institutions, and a strong new administration committed to the pursuit of good education ahead of every other purpose. We also have much unfinished business, the business of education which must be carried out in the context of inflation, public resistance to taxes and declining school enrollments everywhere.

In 1979 we have several priorities:

DISENGAGEMENT OF THE FEDERAL COURT We have successfully overcome the initial crisis of desegregation and now are working to solidify the gains of this period and stabilize the school system. Already the Court has lifted the receivership at South Boston High School and is gradually withdrawing its day-to-day supervision of school operations. We can now plan for stable student assignments, a reliable transportation system, revitalized district schools and effective teaching and learning throughout the system.

INCREASED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT In the past four years the Boston Public Schools have benefited from an unprecedented involvement of parents, businesses and community organizations. A spirit of openness, innovation and relevance to real life has resulted, and we plan to build on these efforts so that all segments of the community will have a stake in the success of the schools.

UNIFIED FACILITIES PLAN We have 155 schools and 14 other buildings and facilities. In order to be sure that every education dollar is effectively spent to benefit children, we will evaluate all facilities and plan for the best, most cost-effective way to use each of them, with full involvement of parents and neighborhoods. Where properties are no longer appropriate for school use, we will recommend possible conversions for reuse in accordance with the desires and interests of the communities affected.

TEACHING AND LEARNING Good teaching depends on teacher training and morale and the leadership offered by principals and administrators. We will be paying increased attention to working conditions, evaluation, and a consistent personnel policy during the coming year. This kind of support helps guarantee equal and effective learning opportunities for all of the children in the Boston Public Schools.

And Beyond

Like the 60's and 70's, the 80's will be a time of change. Our children will need the kinds of fundamental skills and knowledge that will enable them to deal with changes in the job market, social customs and personal responsibilities. Similarly, the school administration will need efficient systems in information, personnel and management in order to recognize changes and respond to them quickly.

Several areas seem certain to demand attention:

BASIC SKILLS AND COMPETENCY The State has already mandated some competency testing for promotion and graduation. In Boston, we plan to use this mandate as a means of helping children through early diagnosis and remedial action. We are aware that all children can achieve basic skills if problems are identified at the right time and sufficient individual attention is given. Finding cost-effective ways of doing this is a fundamental challenge of the 80's.

CAREER EDUCATION We look forward to the opening of the Occupational Resource Center next year and the tremendous increase this will bring in opportunities for training in specific skills for jobs. We are also asking the business community for accurate information about the job market so that we can prepare students for fields that are growing. At the same time, we recognize that all students need to learn about careers and the environment of work so that they will be able to relate their academic work and their personal growth to their future lives. To this end, we will encourage career exploration as a part of the curriculum at all levels.

COMMUNITY ACCESS A major goal of all policy and planning is the nuturing of those ideas and programs which give the greatest opportunity for broad community access to Boston Public Schools. Already our schools house health clinics, Little City Halls, Community Schools, day care centers and recreational programs. These services operate year round and serve our youngest as well as our oldest populations. A most vital part of our urban landscape, Boston Public Schools bridge the mainstream of life in our city, making possible efficient, effective use of the investments made over the years past.

Our children embody the hope for progress and the future. Our city reflects the success or failure of public education. As Boston celebrates its 350th Birthday, honoring the contributions of our culturally diverse population, we are reminded of our urban heritage. Different origins and different perspectives, enhanced through public education, have made this city unique in urban America. The mandate of public education directs that all our young people have the opportunity to acquire the tools to enable them to become contributing adults. Robert Wood stated that the challenge of his superintendency is "to believe in the young, who after the rites of passage, will have the obligation to care for us in the way we have cared for them."

PLEASE POST

Use Your Boston Public Schools!

CENTRAL OFFICES:	26 Court Street	
726-6200	Boston, Massachusetts	
	02108	
726-6555	School Assignment and Transportation Information	
726-6447	Kindergarten Inquiries	
726-6274	Special Needs Students	
726-6485	Adult Education	
725-4920	Community School Programs	

School and Program Questions,
call your District Office

DISTRICT OFFICES:

	Telephone	Neighborhoods	Address
I	783-1195 254-2517	Allston, Brighton, Mission Hill, Roxbury	Mary Lyon School 50 Beechcroft Street Brighton 02135
II	323-5250 323-5251 323-5252	Jamaica Plain, Roxbury Roslindale	Theodore Parker School Church & Centre Streets West Roxbury 02132
III	298-0190 298-0191 298-0192	Mattapan, Roslindale, West Roxbury	Mattahunt School 100 Hebron Street Mattapan 02126
IV	364-3033 364-3034 364-3035	Dorchester, Hyde Park, Mattapan, Roslindale,	Elihu Greenwood School 612 Metropolitan Avenue Hyde Park 02136
V	436-2139 288-2455 288-6080	Dorchester	Thomas Leen School 65 Bailey Street Dorchester 02124
VI	282-3440 282-3441 282-3442	Columbia Point, Roxbury South Boston	P.T. Campbell Resource Center 1216 Dorchester Avenue Dorchester 02125
VII	426-5552 426-5444	Beacon Hill, Charlestown, Chinatown, Roxbury, South End	Josiah Quincy School 885 Washington Street Boston 02111
VIII	569-2959 569-5032	East Boston	East Boston High School 86 White Street East Boston 02128
IX	442-1396 442-1397 442-1398	City Wide (Magnet Schools)	Madison Park High School 55 New Dudley Street Roxbury 02119 (Building No. 1)
	726-6265	Community and Public Affairs	
	726-6228	School Committee, Secretary's Office	

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elementary & middle magnet schools

A GUIDE for
Parents & Students

BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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Acknowledgements

This 1979 edition of Elementary and Middle "Magnet Schools" in Boston is the result of the cooperative efforts of many people. The gathering of information was made possible through the efforts of the following parent researchers : Alice Durant, Alice France, Elsie Biles, Maudie Coleman, Barbara Corey, Beverly Schaffer, Peggy Flanagan, Dorothy Alleyne, Ted Arnold and Karen Williams. Without their support this guide would not have been possible. We gratefully acknowledge their assistance and the assistance of:

-The Bureau of Equal Educational Opportunity, Massachusetts Department of Education, for the financial support in printing the Guide.

-Roger Beattie, Acting Community District Superintendent, District IX, for his cooperation and encouragement.

-District IX Principals, and teachers for their time in sharing their magnet school knowledge and experience with us.

-Staff of the Department of Implementation who have assisted in coordinating, supervising, editing and preparing this guide.

-The City-Wide Educational Coalition staff for their technical assistance, specifically: Edmund Crotty and Rose Edwards, Publication Coordinators, and Barbara Corey in her reviewing and editing assistance.

-Professional Assistance in the design and layout of the book has been received from Mark Bourbeau.

Our very special thanks to the many parents who generously shared their views of their children's schools with us. To them and to all educators who are determined to provide the best in education in Boston, this guide is dedicated.

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1979-80

elementary & middle magnet schools

A GUIDE for Parents & Students

PREPARED by the DEPARTMENT of IMPLEMENTATION

WITH TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE FROM
The City-Wide Educational Coalition

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Preface

Dear Parents:

As the new Superintendent of the Boston Public Schools, I am pleased to have the opportunity to greet you through this Guide to Magnet Schools. Since I joined the School Department six months ago, I have visited most of the magnet schools described in this booklet. I am impressed with the variety of programs available and by the enthusiasm shared by school personnel and students alike.

Since 1975 when magnet schools were first created in Boston, we have seen a steady increase in the numbers of children of all races who have chosen them. At the same time, the number and diversity of programs as well as quality of services to children in these schools have steadily improved. The result is a city-wide district of 22 magnet schools (District IX) where 19,000 of Boston's 68,000 public school students attend school. The educational programs available in these magnet schools offer parents a wide range of options in choosing a public school for their child. From the "Traditional Basic Skills" emphasis of the Nathan Hale School to the "Open Education" theme of the Trotter School, parents can choose from many programs. Whether the "Language Arts" theme at the Guild, "Science" at the Haley and McKay, or "Bilingual Education" at the Hernandez students are offered specific programs in a multi-cultural setting.

The overriding theme of all our magnet schools is diversity. In each of these schools the great diversity of Boston is reflected as students from every neighborhood in the city come together every day to pursue their education. The diversity of programs offered is unmatched by any school system. Support services available to students through the pairing of universities, businesses, cultural institutions and community agencies are unprecedented. Through Racial Ethnic Parent Councils and Home and School Associations, parents play an active role in assisting school professionals in decision-making at the local school level.

On the following pages you will find general descriptions of all elementary and middle magnet schools in Boston. More complete descriptions of magnet high schools can be found in the Guide to Boston High Schools prepared by the City Wide Educacional Coalition. We are grateful to C.W.E.C. for its assistance in the preparation of this guide as well.

(continued)

I am particularly impressed by the comments of the parents and teachers which accompany these schools' descriptions as they cite the many strengths of their schools and offer constructive suggestions as to how they might be improved.

Before making choices, I urge you to visit the schools and talk with the principals, teachers and other parents. We are proud of what we offer in our magnet schools and we welcome the participation of parents, teachers and students as we strive to create the kind of quality urban education system which can serve as a model for this country. I welcome your assistance in doing that.

Robert Wood
Superintendent of Schools

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Ten years ago I took part in a study of the Boston Public Schools which bore the title "Organizing an Urban School System for Diversity". The magnet schools described in this publication and in the companion publication about Boston's high schools are the evidence that a school system can change to serve and reflect a highly diverse urban population, and to make use of some of the rich resources of the city. Much remains to be done - I speak as a parent of children in two of the schools described herein - but we have made a valuable start in recognizing that children are different and can learn from their differences.

Charles L Glenn, Jr., Director
Bureau of Equal Educational Opportunity

Introduction

On the following pages you will find descriptions of the thirteen magnet elementary and middle schools within the city-wide magnet district (District 9) of the Boston Public Schools. The information provided was gathered and written by interviewers with administrators, teachers, parents and students.* Principals at each of the schools were interviewed. Interviews with parents and administrators were conducted by eleven parent volunteers.

Through the input of people connected with Boston's magnet schools we have found that many innovative and exciting programs exist. We have also found, however, that at some schools there are problems with inadequate facilities.

We have included quotes from parents, teachers, students and administrators which convey their views on both the strengths and weaknesses of their schools. Editorial comments are provided based on the interviewers' observations.

We are especially grateful to the parents and students who gave us their time and provided us with their impressions of the schools. It has not been our intention to evaluate these impressions of the schools from the information we gathered. Our intent has been to design a guide book that would provide parents and students with options and descriptions of programs that are available as they make decisions for the 1979-1980 school year. Prior to any decision, we urge that you visit the school and examine the educational program and atmosphere. Only then will you, as parents and students, know that you have found the environment which best meets your needs and priorities.

Guidelines developed by the State Department of Education mandate the involvement of parents and teachers in the planning and approval of proposals developed for funding under Chapter 636. Two categories of programs funded under this law are those developed through the court mandated university-school pairings and cultural collaborative efforts.

We identify universities and cultural institutions within the City of Boston, which work together with a particular school to create and put to use educational, business and cultural programs for students within the school. The unique educational and cultural services which are provided by these pairings complement the magnet theme, which in itself is what influences the educational program of the particular school.

* The findings of the interviewers may or may not be supported by school authorities.

Explanation of the Format

This guidebook has been organized in a way so as to make it easier for you the reader, to locate particular information about the magnet elementary and middle schools that are located in District 9 of the Boston Public Schools.

The major headings for each school description inlcude the following:

Educational Program
Facilities
Student Activities and Comments
Parent Involvement and Comments
Editorial Comments

The descriptions that are given for each school contain explanations about courses, programs, magnet themes, pairings and special programs and services. These entries will be summarized briefly below. Also, you will find definitions of terms that are used frequently in this guidebook to aid you in understanding the information that is given for every school:

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

This section includes course offerings, curriculum and generally, the educational programmatic characteristics of each school.

MAGNET THEME

Each magnet school program has a major theme around which its academic program and enrichment activities are based. This material will give you the basic purpose of the educational program for individual schools. The topic is important when choosing a magnet school since it reflects your child's basic interests.

UNIVERSITY PAIRINGS

Each of the magnet schools has a pairing with a local college or university. These efforts were begun as part of the Federal Court Desegregation Plan. The academic institutions in cooperation with the local school administration, teachers and parents develop programs which fill identified needs of the pupils, while others offer support services to the school staff. Other pairings have begun experimental, enrichment units. There is a great variety of services offered by the universities throughout the Magnet District.

CULTURAL PAIRINGS

The cultural efforts with the schools are coordinated by the Cultural Educational Collaborative (CEC). A school may request a program in science, drama, music, dance. The CEC will match this request with an institution or cultural group that can provide the service. Examples of these collaborations include programs with the New England Aquarium, Museum of Transportation, special music and dance programs with the New England Conservatory and Boston Ballet.

SPECIAL FUNDED PROGRAMS

Chapter 766 is the Massachusetts Law which requires that each school system develop and provide educational programs for special needs students. Special needs students are identified through the Core Evaluation process. They may be students with a learning disability, a behavioral problem or a physical handicap. Once identified, to the extent possible, they are to be mainstreamed into regular classrooms. In addition these students also receive special support services -- educational, medical, phychological, etc., as are found necessary. It is not possible to mainstream all students, because some students need more individualized programs or support services. Those students are assigned to substantially separate classrooms where teachers and aides can provide this additional help.

Each school has a (Core) Evaluation Team Leader (ETL). It is his/her responsibility to participate in the evaluation of the diagnostic testing results and assist in developing the educational plan which will meet the students' particular needs. The educational plan for each student is developed together with the parent and teacher through conferences and work sessions. The ETL keeps parents informed of the programs and services which are being provided, or not provided, to the students requiring special needs in that school. Parents have the right to participate in the entire process - from initial referral to regularly scheduled progress report conferences.

If you have any additional questions about a specific program at a particular school, contact the ETL Coordinator. For other information on Special Needs programs such as Chapter 766, you may want to call the Department of Special Services, 26 Court Street, Boston, Massachusetts, 726-6274.

BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

This system is one of the few in the nation, offering Bilingual instruction in 8 languages other than English. These Bilingual programs are transitional in nature. * Their purpose is to mainstream the non-English speaking student into the regular English program as soon as the student is ready to do so. Generally, this learning process occurs in one, two or a maximum of three years. The programs are offered in Spanish, Italian, Greek, Portuguese-Cape Verdean, Chinese, French, Vietnamese and Russian.

TITLE I

Title I is a federally funded program which provides educational and support services to students designated as "educationally deprived". Eligibility for the Title I funds is determined by a lengthy and complicated process. School residential areas are ranked-ordered according to the number of low income families residing there. Once a city-wide average is established, schools falling below that average are eligible for Title I assistance. However, because of funding constraints, not all eligible schools are provided Title I services.

REMEDIAL SERVICES

These services are provided to students as supplementary programmatic support in a specific skill area which generally centers on reading. Students are instructed by specialized personnel in order to equip them with whatever is necessary for them to successfully encounter the curriculum that must be learned.

ESAA

The Emergency School Assistance Act (ESAA) is a federal program which provides money for school systems in the process of desegregation. In Boston, these monies provide varied supplementary education programs as well as pay the salaries of some aides. There is mandated parental involvement in proposal development through input from the ESAA Advisory Council and the ESAA Bilingual Advisory Council.

*not intended as a language maintenance program.

CHAPTER 636 MONIES

Chapter 636 is the funding mechanism provided under the Racial Imbalance Law. Through the approval of the Board of Education, monies are provided to school systems which create special schools and/or programs which foster racial desegregation. Boston is eligible to receive these funds because of its desegregation effort.

HEALTH

This section is meant to provide you with basic information about the health services in each school, the persons who provide it, and their availability at each school. In addition to the nursing services, a doctor visits all schools on a regular basis.

RACIAL ETHNIC PARENT COUNCIL (REPC)

This term is used throughout the book when referring to the parent organization which is active in each school. This group is involved with planning, implementing, and monitoring the educational activities at the school, as well as other activities.

EDITORIAL

This part of the school description is based only on the personal opinion of the parent interviewer and researcher who visited the school. It is not influenced by school or School Department personnel, and only reflects the impressions of the parent interviewer.

We strongly emphasize the importance of your visit to the schools when making a choice for your child.

Further information about programs and student assignment procedures can be found in the 1979-80 Student Assignment Information Booklet. This booklet is produced by the Department of Implementation, Boston School Department, 26 Court Street, Boston, Mass. 02108, telephone number 726-6555.

elementary schools

James M. Curley
Elementary School
Pershing Road
Jamaica Plain, MA 02130
Telephone: 524-1743

Grades: K through 5
Principal: George Guptill
Total Enrollment: 308
Black: 133 White: 134 Other: 41

Average Class Size: 25

James M. Curley

Principal Comments

"What we do at the Curley is to present a full program that promotes understanding and respect, together with a solid foundation of basic skills, in a pleasant learning atmosphere.

Educational Program

At the Curley, there are self-contained classrooms for the first graders and team-taught classes grades 2 through 5.

The first graders spend their day with their homeroom teachers; the emphasis for this grade is reading. It is felt that this one relationship of teacher to student is important at the first grade level.

In grades 2 through 5, students are grouped in mixed grade level homerooms. Teachers work in teams with children who are ability grouped for work in reading, math, and language arts. These students work with several teachers in their teams each day.

The basic curriculum is supplemented by the services of a full-time math specialist, a math center, and library which is run by volunteers, parents and a trained aide. Emphasis has been placed on the improvement of oral and written language through creative writing.

Magnet Theme

The Magnet Theme of the Curley School combines a program of basic skills with a multi-cultural emphasis in an open space setting. Activities in Social Studies, Music and Creative Arts are playing a large role in developing the children's interest in their different backgrounds.

Pairings

university

Curley/Wheelock Collaborative: The pairing with Wheelock has provided the following services: a Special Needs Consultant, a library program, a parent coordinator , a newsletter editor, a math center, and student teachers. Areas of concentration have been jointly developed by teachers, parents and administration. Typical of the variety of activities are: weekly Tuesday Morning Coffee Club, programs for parents, and the successful International Night for parents and children.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

A full time Core Evaluation Team Leader coordinates all services for children with special needs. All students are mainstreamed to varying degrees in Art, Music, Physical Education, homeroom activities and field trips. There are 2 special needs teachers who service 48 students.

title 1

The Curley has a Title I reading program currently serving 126 students. Three reading specialists give needed remediation to small groups and individual students in the reading center. There is also one Title I Early Childhood aide who works in the Kindergarten program.

other 636

Kodaly Music Program: The Kodaly Music Training Center provides a full time music teacher.

All children at the Curley have music classes two times a week. Physical, intellectual, emotional and social skills are developed through folk singing with action and dance movements.

In addition to the regularly scheduled class lessons, a chorus composed of 4th and 5th graders meets twice a week. This group, which participated in the Mayor's Christmas program, performs at school functions.

health

There is a nurse at the Curley 3 days a week; the other days she is on call at a nearby building.

Teacher Comments

"The Magnet Theme has made the children more aware of all types of people and how to relate to them."

"I would love to see more parents involved in the school programs."

FACILITIES

School facilities include: an art rooms, a library, a conference room, a reading center, a math center and a cafeteria-auditorium-gym combination.

The Curley was built in 1970 and is in good condition. There is also a paved playground beside the building.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is a Racial Ethnic Parent Council and a Home and School Association at the Curley. Representatives from both groups have been involved in the planning of the Curley/Wheelock programs. The REPC meets monthly. A parent newsletter is published two times a month. The Home and School Association sponsors fund-raising events. Parents also serve as volunteers for the library, classrooms, art room, music program and field trips.

Parent Comments

"The school is very responsive to parents and parent groups."

"I would like to see the school be a little more firm with the children."

Editorial Comments

I found the J. Curley School to be a very interesting one, not only because of its programs and activities, but because it was refreshing to actually see and feel the happiness of the children there.

They seemed very comfortable in their surroundings and content. The overcrowded situation that was there for last year has been addressed, and there are smaller classes now.

The faculty and principal were very cooperative in this project and the parents were just great!

The Curley School was also the winner of the Best School Award given by the Boston Herald, Sunday, August 27, 1978. Visiting this school was quite a rewarding experience for me as I believe it will be for parents who do the same.

Curtis Guild
Elementary School
5 Ashley Street
East Boston, MA 02128
Telephone: 567-4194

Grades: K-5
Principal: John Vosella
Total Enrollment: 234
Black: 106 White: 103 Other: 25

Average Class Size: 25

Principal Comments

"The surrounding community is extremely pleasant and the atmosphere in the school is happy and friendly, providing that personal touch, which I am sure, you would want to see in a school setting. Children intermingle with each other in a cordial, friendly manner. The children are happy, education is fundamental and meaningful."

Educational Program

The Curtis Guild offers an educational program that is geared to the needs of the individual child. Particular emphasis is placed on Reading and Mathematics with overall stress on the Language Arts. Each student is tested in September and them placed in the appropriate levels, of each subject regardless of his/her actual grade. This practice was initiated by the principal to enable each student to perform at maximum potential. Classroom teachers may then use their judgment in moving a student to a different level according to his/her performance. There are numerous supportive programs available if needed. Advanced classes are available in the 4th and 5th grades as are remedial programs throughout the grades. Home economics, art, and music are offered once a week.

Curtis Guild

Magnet Theme

The magnet theme at the Guild School is Language Arts. The teachers at this school are sucessful in integrating this theme into each subject. With the help of people and ideas from Lesley College, the magnet theme has become an exciting part of each day for the children at the Guild. The magnet theme of Language Arts is not so much taught in the classroom as it is practiced, in every aspect of school life - from an exposure to Linguistics to a Language Arts Fair and a Young Writers' Conference.

Pairings

university

For the third year in a row, Lesley College continues to make substantial contributions to the educational program at the Guild and in particular to the magnet theme. The college has supplied classroom aides who the principal feels give the child a wider perspective on learning. The child is exposed to various teaching styles and in turn has two people who are tending to his needs.

With the help of Lesley College, a Language Arts Fair is held in May at the school. The children also attend a Young Writers' Conference at the college, resulting in a Creative Writing Journal of poems and stories, written by the Guild School children. In addition, special presentations were offered including a black cultural dance troupe, a puppet show, and a pantomine demonstration. These programs enable the children to relax and have fun while learning.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

Special instruction in reading and mathematics is available according to a child's particular need. The student is mainstreamed for all other subjects, spending 25% or less of their time in the Resource Room. Twenty-eight children are currently served. A Core Evaluation Team Leader is at the Guild one day per week.

title 1

Title I Reading is available to those students who need assistance and who live in certain geocodes. The reading specialist here uses the Ginn 720 Reading Series to supplement regular reading materials. Both specialists make constant use of listening stations, language masters, and other audio visual equipment.

remedial services

The remedial reading program is available to those students who require individual assistance. In this program the reading specialist uses Modern Curriculum Press and Economy Reading Series to supplement her regular reading materials.

esaa

An instrumental support team provides a nine (9) week program to the Guild staff. They instruct the teachers in preparation of cross-cultural lessons and activities which are more appropriate to the integrated classes they now teach.

other 636

Thompson's Island: The Guild, in conjunction with the Thompson's Island staff, offers an exciting program on man's environment. Fourth and fifth graders visit the island for field trips and are given further in-school

instruction by the Island staff. The program centers on man and his environment - what he is doing to it and how he is affected by it.

Mathematics Programs: The Lavatelli system is used to initiate kindergarten children into math. This particular "pre-math" program introduces the children to the concepts of space, size, colors and counting. Miniature items the child would see in everyday life (e.g. silverware) are used as visual and tactile aids. It offers a basic, yet colorful and creative introduction to math for the young child.

Classmate 88 calculators are used weekly in the Math Laboratory by those students who need assistance with math skills. The use of this machine is an incentive to the child who might otherwise find math frustrating. The calculator is not used as a substitute for the teacher, however, as the student must determine his own answers under teacher supervision.

Library: Chapter 636 funds have been used to broaden the racial scope of the books offered in the library.

health

The nurse is at the Guild three half days per week; she is on call the other days at a nearby school.

Teacher Comments

"We have a nice, professional staff. Most of the teachers here are breaking their necks to really teach the children. They have the children's interest at heart."

"People have a mental block about coming through the tunnel. We're really not that far. We've never experienced any major problems with busing the children here."

FACILITIES

The Guild School is actually two buildings which have been joined together; one part, the older section was built in 1921; the newer section was built in 1956. The newer section houses the cafeteria, library, combination gymnasium/auditorium, and four classrooms for regular education and two classrooms for extended day kindergarten. The older structure houses the nurse's office, the Advanced 4th and 5th grade classes, two classrooms for extended day kindergarten, a resource room, a Title I reading classroom and the regular education classrooms.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is an active and dedicated REPC at the Guild. Council input on educational programs enables parents to offer suggestions and discuss problems openly with the staff. There is a small Home and School Association at the school. Parents who are unable to attend meetings are kept well-informed of school events by constant notices that are sent home with the children.

Parent Comments

"It's a super school. Discipline is great. I would recommend this school to any parent. Nothing I could say would be good enough. The teachers really care. A child belongs here, the teachers are like parents in this homey environment."

46-431 O - 80 - 57

"They try to meet the needs of the child. The principal and staff are sensitive. If you have a problem, come and they will give you some kind of feedback."

"This is a comfortable, warm atmosphere for the child. There is discipline, but it is a loving discipline. The programs are excellent. The children are very happy here. The doors are always open to me. It's like a second home."

Editorial Comments

The happy, open, homey atmosphere of the Guild provides an optimum environment for learning. The principal, staff, and parents all seem to be working toward one end - to provide the best possible education for each child.

The principal's pride in his school is evidenced by the publication of a brochure each spring, encouraging prospective students and their parents to visit the school. It is well worth the trip. Special mention should be made of the library and Extended Day Kindergartens which are exceptional. Also, the reading scores achieved by the students last spring were the highest in the city.

Requests are being made for more classroom space which the school needs and deserves.

Nathan Hale
Elementary School
51 Cedar Street
Roxbury, MA 02119
Telephone: 427-1930

Grades: K through 5
Principal: Pasquale Lochiatto
Total Enrollment: 175
Black: 78 White: 60 Other: 37

Nathan Hale

Principal Comments

"In the Nathan Hale Academics-Plus Program, teachers are committed to the concept of self-contained classrooms in which they are responsible for pupil mastery of skills in each subject area. The curriculum follows a definite progression, building on the skills and abilities acquired at the previous levels."

"On an individual basis, each child is expected to continually develop the skills, attitudes and the confidence necessary for a problem solving approach to life."

"The school atmosphere is warm, happy, quiet, and very supportive of pupil progress and achievement. Parent involvement in school activities is welcomed."

"Our enrollment has continually increased because parents have recognized the excellent nature and quality of our school programs."

Educational Program

The Nathan Hale Academics-Plus Program is based on the belief that the major role of the school is to equip students with the basic academic skills necessary to become productive members of society and to foster the development of study habits conducive to continuous independent learning throughout life. The school seeks to build within each child a positive self-image, a sense of responsibility, respect for and appreciation of other people, self-understanding and confidence and pride in accomplishments through proven academic achievement. Modes of learning are individual; many children learn best in a structured teacher-directed environment. The Academics-Plus philosophy recognizes the great responsibility of the parents in the social and psychological development of the "whole child". Each child will develop and progress to his fullest ability through a structured, well-defined, sequential, basic skills-oriented curriculum with emphasis on reading, mathematics, written and oral

language, spelling and handwriting.

The Academics-Plus School incorporates the following characteristics: instructional program with emphasis on basic skills; teacher-directed learning; discipline - firm, consistent, and fair; written notification of parent and student responsibility.

The Boston Public Schools curriculum guides, supplemented with specially designed Academics-Plus objectives, serve as the plan for instruction. It is the method of instruction, as well as the content, that sets the Hale apart from other Boston Public Schools.

The Hale has a grade organization structure K-5. Each classroom is self-contained and under the supervision of one teacher who is responsible for all major subjects and all classroom activities. A clearly defined program structure, organization and a logical order of curriculum presentation serves as the foundation and basis for all instruction. Teachers consult and work cooperatively as a total unit to ensure individual pupil attention and progress from grade to grade.

Basic skills instruction receives the repetition, review and drill needed for mastery. Textbooks, meeting the Academics-Plus objectives, have been selected for each subject area. The same text series is used at all grade levels to ensure instructional continuity.

Homework is given regularly to all students.

Frequent evaluation of student progress, includes but is not limited to the use of standardized tests, chapter and unit tests, and teacher evaluations. Children who do not show sufficient progress in the mastery of basic skills will be given remedial help through the use of tutors, aides, and supplementary reading instruction in small groups.

Several extra programs have been available for children in art, music, science, Spanish-as-a-Second Language and physical education. Teachers have had the resources of specialists to help in these areas. Once a week, the students visit the library which is staffed by a parent volunteer. The Hale School is also working with the Camp Fire Girls organization in developing student self-reliance and Career Education activities. A six week Career Education program is held for 3rd, 4th and 5th grade students.

Magnet Theme

Academics-Plus, the magnet theme at the Hale, emphasizes individual pupil and group achievement in reading, mathematics, language, and writing - balanced with a wide variety of different enrichment and cultural activities. In order to carry out the magnet theme, emphasis on basic studies, achievable objectives and achievement levels are clearly stated for each grade. Students, within their capabilities, are expected to accomplish these goals before moving to the next grade. The curriculum follows a definite progression, building on the skills and abilities acquired at each level.

The staff has been totally involved in planning and implementing the magnet theme. Parents have had input, additional personnel have been assigned, and the student enrollment has substantially increased in the past two years. The balanced enrollment and the establishment of KI and KII extended day kindergarten programs have brought greater stability and instructional continuity through the grades.

Pairings

university

The Nathan Hale is paired with Wheelock College. The program services include an extensive variety of early childhood educational experiences for the extended day students and regular individual tutoring for selected grade 1-5 students.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

There is an Evaluation Team Leader who works on a part-time basis at the Hale School. There is one resource room and one special needs teacher who provide services to approximately 25 students.

title 1

Seventy-five students are provided instruction in reading through the Title I program that is available at the Hale School. The school has a Title I reading laboratory which highly motivates student learning through an individualized approach. The laboratory effectively complements the regular reading program.

esea

The school has received over $3,000 in mini-grant awards that provide stimulating materials and multicultural experiences for students.

remedial services

The Remedial Reading Program provides small group instruction for children who need to be brought up to their present grade level in reading. The program is offered daily, for 45-minute periods, depending on the need of the child. The selection of students for this program is based on the individual's reading achievement and on the recommendations and evaluation of the child's classroom teacher and the remedial reading teacher.

other 636

Boston Zoological Society: features classroom programs and activities with live animals for grades 1, 2, and 3.

Boston Ballet: in association with the Donovan School, Randolph, features field trips to the Boston Ballet Center, Donovan School and attendance at a performance of the "Sleeping Beauty Ballet" in Boston. Grade 5.

Peabody Museum: Salem, MA - in association with the Alighieri School, East Boston. A series of field trips to the Peabody Whaling Museum, Salem. Grade 5.

Nashoba Valley Camping Program: in association with the Bradley School, East Boston. One week outdoor camping in Westford, MA field trip and multicultural food days. Grade 4.

Thompson Island - Tides Program: in association with the Alighieri School, East Boston. Trips, by ferry, to Thompson Island for environment related studies. Grades 1, 2, 3.

Media Center Skills: support for a materials resource center for reading and language arts supplementary materials. All grades.

Multicultural Curriculum Presentations - a series of diverse performances, representing many cultures and a variety of themes. These are presented by community and out of school organizations.

health

The school nurse is at the Hale part time during the week; she is on call the other days. There is a nurse's room in the building.

FACILITIES

The school has a library, a mini gym, a media resource center, and a very large school yard.

The school is in very good condition. It has been newly painted, modernized, and the surrounding area is residential and quiet.

The school has requested the construction of an addition which will include a cafeteria-gym combination and special rooms for art, music, and science activities.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is a full Racial Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) and a Home and School Association at the Hale School. Transportation to REPC meetings is provided.

Parents are invited to participate in the planning of curriculum and programs at the school. Close contact is maintained with parents in regard to student programs and student needs. Parents are welcome to visit the school at any time.

Parent Comments

"I think the teachers are excellent, they take the time to explain things to you."

"I'm upset about the cuts in funding - there is less music and science this year."

"I like the stress on traditional academic subjects. The children get a very good background in reading and math."

Editorial Comments

The faculty and administration show an unusual commitment to the students and the school as a whole. This in turn shows in the classroom and out in the playground, where all the children radiate a happiness and an attitude of high morale.

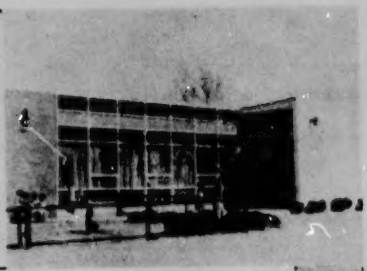
This setting of traditional education reflects that the children of the Nathan Hale can be happy while working diligently on their education.

I think upon leaving the Nathan Hale, these children will have had a firm foundation on which to build their future education.

Dennis C. Haley
Elementary School
570 American Legion Highway
Jamaica Plain, MA 02130
Telephone: 522-1661

Grades: K through 5
Principal: Robert J. Berry
Total Enrollment: 339
Black: 167 White: 147 Other: 25

Average Class Size: 25



Dennis C. Haley

Principal Comments

"Through the program at the Dennis C. Haley, we try to instill in our pupils not only a feeling of freedom, but also of responsibility. Minimal grade standards have been developed and it is expected that through close cooperation between the home and the school each child will develop to his/her highest educational potential."

Educational Program

The Haley has an open space concept and is divided into three areas: (1) the Explorers - two class stations equivalent to first grade; (2) the Pioneers - four class stations equivalent to grades two and three; (3) the Settlers - four class stations equivalent to grades four and five. KI and KII have separate classrooms.

The classes are multi-graded and partially ability grouped. There is an overlapping graded system by which most children are placed with other students at the same ability level. Flexibility of the grouping encourages the development of a comfortable and challenging learning atmosphere.

Teaching is done on an individual basis. Team teaching is found in some subject areas. The teaching style is basically traditional but the approach varies depending on the teacher, the student, and the subject being taught.

The educational program also includes music, art, physical education, sewing and cooking. There is conversational Spanish for some 4th and 5th graders.

Extra curricular activities include a science club and softball team. A camera club is in the planning stages.

Continuity of program and individualized or small group work are two major strengths of the educational program.

Magnet Theme

The magnet theme at the Haley is science. With the help of Wheelock College, and with input from parents and students an extensive science program has been developed.

The goal of this program is to have science become an enjoyable subject fulfilling each child's curiosity about himself and the world around him. The Science Specialists, the teacher-consultant coordinator, and teachers have devised a program emphasizing the natural sciences, zoology, and conservation. The objectives are to introduce the natural sciences to young children and to teach them the proper care and maintenance of animals, fish and plant life. Direct application of the principles of science is experienced through on-site visits to both Franklin Park Zoo and the Children's Museum.

The Haley uses its science program to upgrade pupils performances in other subject areas, e.g. reading, language skills, social sciences and mathematics.

Pairings

university

Wheelock College: Through the university pairing, the Haley is able to offer an expanded science program with a part time science coordinator.

Also Wheelock provides two reading specialists who work with grades 1 and 2.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

There are three areas within the school that are used for special needs services. Although there are no separate classrooms for Special Needs students, the children are mainstreamed into all areas of the school, and there is one resource teacher in the school.

title 1

The school has two Title I teachers and four Title I aides. Eligibility is determined by a combination of achievement testing, teacher evaluations and geocode.

These teachers offer a Title I program in both reading and mathematics.

esaa & career

Through the ESAA grant, there is a career awareness program for grades 4 and 5.

other 636

Franklin Park Zoo/Children's Museum - Children in grades one through three participate in this program. Animals being studied are brought into classrooms. Children in grades four and five visit the Children's Museum.

health

There is a nurse at the Haley part time during the week; the other days she is on call at a nearby building.

Teacher Comments

"The kids have a lot of work but they have a lot of fun."

"I think our emphasis has been in reading along with our science."

"There ought to be a full time science person since the magnet theme is science."

"I think the children that have been in this building from kindergarten to the second grade have roots that we can keep building upon. Where in the children that have come from other districts and other schools they really have to start from the very beginning."

"I really like this school. The set up is great. I like the principal, faculty, and parents. It's a happy place."

FACILITIES

The building houses the following: library, art room, music/sewing room, multi-purpose room which serves as a cafeteria, auditorium, and gym.

The Haley is a recently renovated building and appears to be in excellent condition.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Parent involvement is encouraged by the administrative and teaching staff. The principal feels that one of the major strengths of the school is the positive parent participation and the degree of cooperation that exists between the school staff and parents.

The Racial Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) and the Home and School Association have combined their efforts this year in many areas. They sponsor family events such as the Spring Olympics, International Dinner and the Christmas Bazaar. They have currently formed a Middle School Committee and a Transportation Committee. Parents also work or volunteer in many areas of the school.

Parent Comments

"There seems to be a good harmonious exchange between staff and parents, even when you disagree it's o.k."

"On a one to one level there's a lot of exchange between staff and parents and teachers and parents and principal."

"I think our science program, since we are a Science magnet, should be better implemented than it is. We should have a full time Science teacher."

"I do see learning going on at the Haley. I see my children getting a good start. I don't think I'll have to worry about them."

"I like the open classroom set up. I think that's very good. The fact that kids can work on their own levels in various areas is very appealing to me."

"I feel comfortable as a parent, participating."

Editorial Comments

The Dennis C. Haley School is concerned with children in all aspects of their growth and development. Parents are expected and encouraged to play

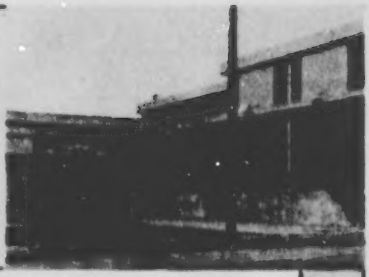
an active role in their children's educational process.

Great emphasis is placed on reading. The Haley School placed second in the District Nine Magnet reading test.

Children come to the Haley School from all over Boston and that fact has not seemingly affected parents being involved in the school. Parents and students like the school and want to be there.

James W. Hennigan
Elementary School
200 Heath Street
Jamaica Plain, MA
Telephone: 427-4573

Grades: K through 5
Principal: Joseph J. Prendergast
Total Enrollment: 640
Black: 246 White: 207 Other: 187



James W. Hennigan

Principal Comments

The James W. Hennigan Elementary School is an open-space school in a modern building, which has been highly successful in attracting students from all parts of the city.

The theme of the Hennigan School is multicultural, enabling the pupils to learn at an early age how to respect other cultures and acquaint themselves with children from varied backgrounds.

The entire Learning Area can be open-ended, or the wall partitions closed, to make a specific Learning Space self-contained. The physical aspect of the Hennigan School enables the staff to change their teaching techniques to best suit the needs of their students. The flexibility of space and technique makes it easier to fulfill the educational goal of the Hennigan School, which is to give each child a solid foundation of basic skills, and to enable each child to move at his or her own pace through individualized instruction.

Educational Program

The educational program at the Hennigan emphasizes the basic skills (reading, math, and language skills) in all academic areas. In each grade, teachers have grouped students by their level of performance thereby providing for individual educational needs. To achieve this end, the school is physically divided into three separate areas. Each grade has its own section or pod. Moveable walls divide each of these large areas into individual classrooms, opening into a large common area. All students are assigned by grade to a homeroom; the homerooms are balanced with regard to race and sex. Bilingual students also are integrated into each of the homerooms.

The kindergarten program includes four extended day kindergartens, consisting of two Kindergarten I programs, two kindergarten II programs and one kindergarten laboratory. Grades one through five include regular classes and a Hispanic bilingual class at each level. There is an advanced work program (regular and bilingual) at the Hennigan for grades four and five students.

In establishing a firm foundation in education, it is the intent of the school to advance each child one grade-level in reading each year. There are a large variety of reading and math basals used in the school, together with supplementary materials for enrichment. Children are grouped according level and remediation is vided when necessary.

Magnet Theme

A dual Magnet theme is stressed at the Hennigan which accepts as its basic goals the promotion of a desire for personal growth and the development of positive attitudes toward the learning process.

The school concentrates on Mastery of the Basics,-Reading, Language, and Mathematics and on developing the second magnet theme, Multicultural Education which focuses on imparting to all students a formal knowledge, understanding and appreciation of all the cultures which have contributed their strength to America.

Pairings

university

The Hennigan School is paired with Lesley College. The program offers direct services to children in reading. It employs five reading aides to give direct assistance to children in reading and reading related activities. Teachers at each grade level select the children with whom the aides work according to priority needs.

A Lesley College reading instructor meets with the aides weekly for group instruction, observes their work throughout

the week, and gives assistance in their planning and in their direct work with individuals and small groups of children.

The reading instructor is also available to the classroom teachers for assistance in obtaining reading resources.

It also provides a part-time psychologist and two parent coordinators. One task of the Parent Coordinators is to motivate parent participation. Administration, the faculty, the Project Review Board and interested parents are involved in the planning and extension of the program for the next year.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

The school has a full-time Core Evaluation Team Leader who is responsible for core evaluations. The program provides three Resource Rooms (one bilingual Spanish and two regular), one bilingual Learning Adaptive Behavior class, one bilingual Social and Academic Remediation class, two bilingual classes for children with Learning Disabilities and two bilingual Early Childhood classes. An individualized educational program is offered to fit the needs of each child assigned to the program.

bilingual

A Spanish bilingual program, supplemented by the additional of ESL is offered to all Spanish speaking students in grades one through five. Bilingual students are integrated with English speaking students in all homerooms as well as in art, music, gym, pool and other activities.

English speaking children at the Hennigan are offered the opportunity of learning a second language-Spanish. The course is a conversational one.

Advanced Work classes offer French as a second language. This is a two year conversational program.

title 1

The Hennigan offers two Title I enrichment programs; one in Reading (Grade 5) and in English as a Second Language (Grade 5). Both programs provide supplementary small group instruction to those children who demonstrate the greatest educational need and are eligible by residence-geocode and Federal guidelines.

esaa

Eligible Hennigan students are offered supplementary small group instruction in Reading and in Math under a special ESAA program.

other 636

Through 636 funding all teachers and students at the Hennigan School visit the Museum of Science for programs on biology, physiology, ecology, paleontology, physical science etc. Guided activities in the halls follow. Children are learning in a non-school setting with the added enjoyment of visiting exhibits at the museum. Hennigan parents accompany classes to the museum (one parent per class).

As a culmination to this year's program, the Science Museum will host Hennigan teachers, students, and parents in a museum program and visit. This will take place on a Friday night in May.

Resulting from a need expressed by the R.E.P.C., teachers, and administration our Multicultural program is now in its second year of operation.

The program employs a part-time Multicultural Coordinator whose job includes expansion of our Multicultural Resource Center and facilitation of the school's multicultural programs through development of curriculum and aid to teachers in the utilization of materials, demonstration lessons, workshops, field trips and assemblies.

health

The Hennigan School has a full-time nurse and a modern healthroom.

FACILITIES

The facility contains the following: Cafeteria/ Auditorium, Community Meeting Rooms, Home Economic's Room, 766 Resource Room, Swimming Pool, Art Room, Music Room, and Teacher Media Center.

The Hennigan library has become an integral part of the entire school. The library services all students and teachers. It is a meeting place for parents and volunteers who visit the school. Library staff members help coordinate School Volunteer programs in the school.

Besides weekly visits to the library, the library is available to all students for research and special projects. Some library activities are: teaching library skills, encouraging reading, book making, story telling, the showing of film strips and oral book reports. Library exhibits are constantly being rotated. The work of all aide and volunteers in the library, clearly make the (Hennigan School library an enjoyable place for students.)

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The Hennigan is a magnet school and draws its students from all parts of the city. This fact makes it difficult for parents to participate as actively as they would like in school programs. Transportation is a definite problem which has been as is being addressed by the Hennigan administration, staff and Racial Ethnic Parent Council.

There are two parent coordinators for the Lesley/Hennigan program and Parents volunteer to assist in the library, as well as volunteer to chaperone in our 636 Science program activities.

In June the Hennigan realizes the fruits of its efforts in its Multicultural Festival. Administration, teachers, R.E.P.C., staff, children, and parents work to make this "now annual" event a memorable one.

Parent Comments

The teaching staff is excellent. I have been pleased with all the teachers my child has had.

I've been here 5 years and I've watched this school grow. Five years ago, the library was just a place for the students to check in and out books--now it's a central part of the school. Volunteers come in to run the library, there are speakers, and groups, and coffee hours for the parents. The kids are really learning library skills. It has been a slow process, but we've made progress and we are working together.

"Some of the teachers are great. The "team" my daughter had last year was exceptional. I don't think you could find better teachers--individually or as a group."

"There are roaches in the building. But the School Department said they are going to take care of the problem and I would hate to see someone not send their child here because of that. There are so many wonderful programs here."

"My child is learning. She enjoys school. I compare her to children I know in other systems--she knows as much as they do."

"The children learn a lot in the classroom--it's just that the school could be so much more than it is. The Hennigan needs strong leadership. I wish, we parents, could have veto power when it comes to the selection of principal."

Editorial Comments

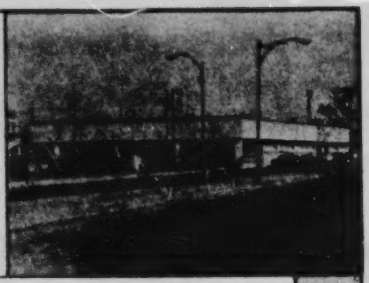
The teaching staff at the Hennigan is impressive. They are productive, dedicated and function well together. Many worthwhile and innovative programs offered at the school are the direct results of joint efforts by the parents and teachers.

This year the R.E.P.C. other parents and the staff have spent a considerable amount of time addressing the problem of building maintenance; they feel confident that this problem should be resolved by the spring.

Rafael Hernandez
Elementary School
370 Columbia Road
Dorchester, MA 02125
Telephone: 287-1093

Grades: K through 5
Principal: Maria Alvarez Geddes
Total Enrollment: 215
Black: 44 White: 18 Other: 153

Average Class Size: 18



Rafael Hernandez

Principal Comments

"The Hernandez could be an exciting learning experience for your child. If your child is verbal and enjoys meeting different people and sharing new experiences, then the Hernandez would be a most appropriate choice. We try to create a warm, welcoming atmosphere where children can learn to work with each other. We also want all our students to progress as rapidly as possible in their academic work. Homework and good study habits are required. We group our students by levels in reading and math in order to allow each child to move at his own pace, but we expect the best possible performance from all children."

Educational Program

The Hernandez is a "flexible" traditional school. Children are grouped in classes of twenty or less and work with a teacher and an aide. Part of the morning is devoted to the instruction of language arts in both Spanish and English with the bilingual classroom teachers and/or specialists. The remainder of the day is used for math, science, social studies, music and art. The magnet theme - bilingual/multicultural education - is evident throughout the entire curriculum. Most subjects are taught in two languages and materials in Spanish and English are readily available for the students.

All students are included in the bilingual program and are learning a second language. The Spanish-speaking children are learning to speak, read, and write English, while the English-speaking children are learning words, phrases, conversational and oral Spanish. English-speaking students are also learning a little reading and writing in Spanish.

Children are grouped according to their levels in Spanish, English, reading and math. The basal reader in English is: Keys to Reading; in Spanish, The Senda Series and the Santillana Reading In Two Languages Program. A variety of supplementary reading materials are used in both languages. English-speaking students have reading scores comparable or better than those of

students in other Boston schools. Remediation is provided for students who need it. Students go to the library weekly with their homeroom teachers and often make additional visits with the specialists.

Magnet Theme

Bilingual/Multicultural Education is the magnet theme offered by the Rafael Hernandez School. All students in the school are being exposed to a second language (Spanish for English speakers and English for Spanish speakers). The specific objectives of the school are to acquaint children with the variety of cultures present in their community, and to create a completely bilingual environment for students and staff. Major among the school's accomplishments is the development of a sequential learning program for bilingual students. All members of the Hernandez School staff, the parents on the Racial Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) and the staff from the cultural/educational institutions with which the school is paired have met to further develop the magnet theme.

Pairings

university

The Hernandez School is paired with Boston University. Chapter 636 monies provide for the services of the music, physical education, and guitar teachers. Boston University staff members also provide support for in-school activities and Spanish language classes for interested parents.

cultural

The Hernandez School is paired with the New England Aquarium through a Chapter 636 grant. The grant provides for direct services to students, teacher-training, the development of materials, and field trips to the Aquarium and other marine habitats. Staff from the Aquarium teach the students about marine life, both at the Hernandez and at the Aquarium.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

The school has one part time evaluation team leader, two (2) resource rooms and one (1) substantially separate class. Students are assigned to the two resource rooms on the basis of their language competency. One resource room provides bilingual services and the other provides remediation in English. The children receiving special needs services in the substantially separate class are assigned homerooms and also share in the following activities: art, physical education, field trips, special presentations, etc.

bilingual

Complete bilingual services are available at the Hernandez School. It is the Model Bilingual School for Boston. The educational services parallel those offered for English speaking students. Instruction is provided in reading and writing in Spanish and English, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, Music, Physical Education, and Art. The Bilingual students are assigned to regular homerooms and share in all activities.

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title 1

The school has one teacher and an aide to instruct students in each of the following: English, reading, English-as-a-Second Language, and Spanish reading. There is also an aide who works in the Kindergarten class in the Early Childhood Development Program.

other 636

Chapter 636 monies provide for a reading specialist to work with children who are having difficulties in learning to read in Spanish and with English speaking children who are learning Spanish as a second language. A part time library aide is also provided for Hernandez by a Chapter 636 district-wide grant.

health

The nurse is at the Hernandez two days a week; the other three days she is on call at nearby buildings. There is a small health space in the building.

Teacher Comments

"At the primary level, I teach Spanish-as-a-Second Language three times a week. I would say that the majority of the children are exposed to the language, but only a minority speak the language during the remainder of the day."

"My students work hard. I push them, but they respond. It's a good feeling at the end of the day, when you think they've learned something new."

FACILITIES

The facility includes one large multipurpose room, which is a large centrally located space that is divided by blackboards. It is used daily to serve the following four (4) separate educational functions: (1) English-as-a-Second Language, (2) Spanish reading, (3) resource room, and (4) library. This space also serves as an auditorium for special programs. The Racial Ethnic Parent Council has requested that the School Department provide permanent folding partitions to divide these sections more effectively. They are awaiting some action on this matter. There is also a playground area that contains a variety of equipment.

The building has been used as a school for seven years and is in good condition.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The Racial Ethnic Council has been involved in the cultural pairing program. The Hernandez School encourages parents to work in the school as volunteers and to help in program planning.

Parent Comments

"There's a warm feeling in this building. The kids mix together real good. I wish all the schools were like this."

"My son is happy here - he loves the Hernandez. He was unhappy in his last school."

"I don't think there is enough emphasis on individualized work for the students. I wish there was more parent-group involvement in planning the educational program. But the

Hernandez is not the only school with these problems. I think they are problems of schools in general."

"When I visited the school, I was impressed with the integration of subject matter. I liked the fact that the teachers responded to the students as individuals. Since my daughter has been going to the school, I've been delighted with the work she's been bringing home."

"The staff has a way of making the kids behave. They go to the fullest and deal individually with the students. They rarely have problems, because the kids are comfortable here."

Editorial Comments

The population of the Hernandez School - students, teachers, parents, aides, and principal - work well together. There is an easy and frequent exchange of information concerning daily events and long term projects. The dedicated attitude of the staff as well as the low pupil/staff ratio clearly shows in the amount of individual attention that the student receives. Students seem to be working constructively.

The Hernandez is efficient, well run, orderly, and busy. The staff was concerned that there was no sequentially developed bilingual curriculum and created their own. They have also coordinated the curriculum in other subject areas and developed their own pupil progress forms.

The staff and parents have secured many extra services for the students by writing numerous grant proposals. Every available space in this small building is being utilized to provide for all the activities happening at the Hernandez School. Because of space limitations, the partitions requested by the Racial Ethnic Parent Council for the multipurpose room, would be a welcome and useful addition to the building.

This school is an exciting option for Hispanic children in Boston. English speaking parents who are looking for a unique bilingual, multicultural experience for their children should call and visit the Hernandez. Available for presentation is a 12 minute film produced in 1977 entitled "Two Way Education: The Hernandez Experience." This film can be used by the community by calling the school and requesting it.

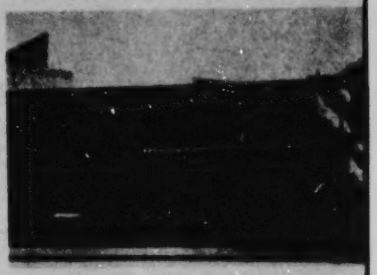
Jackson-Mann School
40 Arlington Street
Allston, Massachusetts 02134

Jackson Unit:
Grades: K through 5
Telephone: 787-5310
Principal: Ralph E. Mann

Total Enrollment: 587
White: 239 Black: 225 Other: 123
Average Class Size: 24

Mann Unit:
Grades: Pre School - high school
Telephone: 787-5313
Acting Principal: Patrice DiNatale

Total Enrollment: 138
White: 52 Black: 45 Other: 41
Average Class Size: 6 to 8



Jackson-Mann

Principal Comments

"Our school is very special in many ways. Perhaps the most outstanding feature is the housing of the only large hearing-impaired student body in the eastern part of the state within a Public School for regular education children. This school provides for the unique integration of hearing-impaired with normally hearing students which brings mutual benefits to both groups."

Educational Program

The Jackson Unit is the regular elementary component, and the Mann Unit provides hearing-impaired children and youth with specialized curriculum and support services. The primary and elementary units at the Jackson-Mann School reflect an open space concept. Children are grouped according to ability. The hearing-impaired children are mainstreamed wherever and whenever possible.

THE JACKSON UNIT:

Team Teaching in each grade allows students to be grouped according to levels. Students in grades 1 through 5 are clustered within grade areas and then grouped by levels in reading and math. The curriculum emphasis is on reading, language, and communication. A "Reading Skill of the Month" program promotes the acquisition of individual reading skills. Special equipment such as Systems 80 and controlled Readers are used at all levels. An extensive school library and reading enrichment program is available to all students. In addition to the regular elementary school program, specialists in art, home economics, physical education, and music work regularly with each student.

The kindergarten program is designed to address the needs of the significant Chinese and Vietnamese population found in the school. There is a Kindergarten Laboratory for students who have not had a kindergarten experience or who need supplementary services in grade 1.

MANN UNIT:

The curriculum for the hearing-impaired student in the Mann Unit is comparable to the academic curriculum of the regular elementary school supported by specialized equipment and specifically designed programs for the deaf (Daniel Ling Speech Program and Rhode Island Language Curriculum). Total Communications, a method in which a teacher simultaneously speaks and employs sign language is used. Interpreters are provided for deaf children who are being mainstreamed into hearing classes if needed. Hearing impaired children receive specialized language and speech instruction by certified teachers of the deaf. An Infant Stimulation Project employs specialists to work with parents who have hearing impaired infants. It is felt that early detection, counseling, and treatment will give the deaf baby a much needed "headstart." The Mann Unit employs a full time social worker, audiologist and phychologist, as well as a full time special needs counselor. There is also a speech laboratory.

The High School Program of the Mann Unit is designed for multi-handicapped/deaf students and is advised by the Jackson-Mann Industrial Advisory Commission which consists of representatives from 15 different businesses and industries in the Greater Boston area. This commission meets monthly. It supports the work/study component of the high school program. The staff consists of teachers of the deaf and vocational education instructors who work closely with parents and the business community.

Magnet Theme

The magnet theme of the Jackson Mann School is mainstreaming. The school was designed with the intent of giving hearing-impaired children an opportunity to have social and educational experiences with their hearing peers.

Every effort is made to educate students with special needs in a mainstreamed setting. Teachers of the deaf are paired with Jackson Unit teachers so that students in grades one through four are educated in the regular classrooms for non-academic as well as selected academic subjects. Team teaching and reverse integration, (Jackson-Mann students take some subjects with the teachers and students in the Mann Unit), are used in some situations. There have been in-service training courses for the Jackson Unit Staff on total communications and on the mainstreaming of hearing-impaired student into the regular classroom.

Regular education students are taught sign language so that they may be able to communicate with their deaf classmates. A special media project provides "captioned films" for mainstreamed classes, and there is a photography course for selected students.

Full academic and social growth for both the hearing-impaired child and the hearing child are the goal of each unit.

Pairings

university

The Boston University pairing provides for a project in Oral Communication Skills, a program in motor development, and an environmental study week for the fifth grades at Agassiz Village in Maine.

The Mann Unit pairing project supports expert consultants in Speech, Language Development and Sign Language. It provides materials and supervised graduate students in deaf education to supplement the Speech Project.

Other Programs & Services

bilingual

There are two Vietnamese classrooms. These students are provided a full academic curriculum with enriched reading classes. The Vietnamese language and culture is infused into the curriculum.

special needs-766

Jackson Unit: There are three (3) resource room teachers who provide the fifty-three (53) core evaluated, special needs students of the Jackson Unit with the services called for in their educational plan.

The school contains the following substantially separate classes: two (2) learning disabled classes and one (1) physically handicapped class. The students in these classes are mainstreamed whenever possible.

Mann Unit: Approximately one-hundred and forty (140) hearing-impaired students, ranging from 3 to 21 years of age, receive special services from the Mann Unit. Specialized services include an evaluation unit, audiological services, an infant stimulation project, a pre-school program and small instruction classes for elementary age children. There is also a career oriented work-study course for older multi-handicapped/deaf students. Approximately 25% of the elementary age students spend some part of the school day with the Jackson Unit classes, the remainder with their specialized teachers.

title 1

There are two (2) Title I Reading teachers. There is also an Early Childhood Project (Mann Unit) in which fifteen (15) hearing kindergarten children are mainstreamed with fifteen (15) pre-school and kindergarten hearing-impaired students on an extended day basis. The Jackson Unit kindergarten students are invited to participate in this project based on area of residence.

remedial services

There is one remedial reading teacher.

other 636

There is a mini-grant to make sign language accessible to all teachers, students, and parents who are interested.

Educational Development Center Project: This project pairs the Museum of Fine Arts with one mainstreamed third grade class. It includes both classroom instruction and museum visits. Parents are involved in the final phase of the project.

health

There is a nurse at the Jackson-Mann 5 days a week. An otologist provides consultant services when there is a need. The MANN Unit nurse operates the citywide hearing clinic.

Teacher Comments

"The theme of mainstreaming has made regular children aware of the problems of the deaf and realize deaf people communicate."

"I've been working to get class size down here. Overcrowding causes problems - mainstreaming is much harder to do effectively and discipline is harder to maintain."

"I think the Jackson administration is too far removed from the (problems of the) classroom.

"A lot of children here have trouble handling open-space education. Before parents select the Jackson-Mann for thier children, they should consider that our emphasis is mainstreaming and open-space education."

FACILITIES

The facility houses the following: a library, gymnasium, cafeteria, home economics room, art room, music room, theatre, and media center.

The building was completed in 1975 and is in good condition.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Under the new structure of two principals; there are two separate Racial Ethnic Parent Council's, - one for the Jackson Unit and one for the Mann Unit. The two councils have worked cooperatively to reduce class size in the Jackson Unit to facilitate mainstreaming.

The Boston University Pairing Project holds parent group meetings to help parents improve their child's speech at home.

Parents volunteer to assist in the school library; and there is a Home and School Association at the Jackson-Mann School.

Parent Comments

"I feel the teachers are dedicated and inspired."

"I think the school has been responsive to the organized efforts by the parents to make their concerns and needs known."

"The Jackson administration is not always able or willing to act promptly on suggestions of the REPC."

"I think the building is just too big for an elementary school - it overwhelms the kids."

"This is a unique school. But we must cut down class size to fulfill the magnet theme of mainstreaming."

"We have had a great deal of support and cooperation from the teachers in our effort to try to lower class size."

Editorial Comments

The Mann Unit appears to be exceptionally well run. The efforts and planning by the Mann faculty and administration, have facilitated the mainstreaming program.

This year the average class size in the Jackson Unit is smaller than last year. But there appears to be a general consensus of the parents, faculty and administration that the pupil/teacher ratio must be lowered to 20/1 at the Jackson Mann if the magnet theme of mainstreaming is to be effectively implemented.

It is worth noting that this school houses an extremely diverse, multi-ethnic population consisting of Blacks, Spanish, American Indian, Chinese, Vietnamese, and many other national groups.

Donald McKay
Elementary School
122 Cottage Street
East Boston, MA 02128
Telephone: 567-3967

Grades: K through 6
Principal: Gerald McGrath
Total Enrollment: 523
Black: 206 White: 273 Other: 44

Average Class Size: 22

Principal Comments

"On behalf of the faculty of the Donald McKay, I cordially invite any parent in the city to visit our fine school. In my opinion, we are able to provide one of the finest educational programs in the city. Please come and bring your children so that you and they can see for yourselves what we offer. The doors of the McKay are always open to any child and parent."

Educational Program

The attractive learning environment that the McKay offers is the result of a combination of a strong reading and math program, a wide variety of other courses, a positive approach to discipline, and a successful integration of the magnet theme.

The classroom teacher is responsible for grouping her students and making recommendations accordingly. The New Century Mathematics and Reading Laboratories, equipped with earphones and tapes, are available for enrichment or remediation. The contents of the materials that are used in the laboratories range from reading readiness to basic College English depending on the individual need of the child.

The school also has full-time teachers in the areas of Art, Music, Woodworking and Home Economics. A physical education teacher added this year is teaching new skills and games to the children and already has plans for a softball league in the spring.

The Glasser approach to discipline is used throughout the school. This program involves weekly workshops which are given to teachers and interested parents. Through a personal sense of caring, the teacher instills a responsibility in each student for his own actions. If a problem develops, the teacher and student work out a plan for resolving the problem.

Donald McKay

Magnet Theme

The Magnet Theme of the McKay is science. A wide range of science-oriented experiences are available to the students both in the school and in the community. The McKay boasts of a tremendous science laboratory - a combination classroom/preparation room filled with the latest in science kits and materials. The addition of a second science teacher this year has allowed further expansion of the program. Children are given two periods of science per week. The magnet theme is well integrated into such subjects as art, mathematics and even in social studies (a recent trip to the Irish Exhibit at the Museum of Fine Arts provided a valuable lesson in archeology). In the past, the McKay has participated in programs with the Boston Zoological Society, the Children's Museum and the Museum of Science. The school is currently involved with programs offered by the Thompson's Island staff and the Aquarium. Advanced science classes are available for those students who express an unusual interest in science. They enjoy one extra science period per week and many field trips. The Science Department has continually provided materials and supplies. The magnet theme of science has made considerable contributions to the entire educational program.

Pairings

university

Although there is no formal university pairing, the principal and staff have a flexible relationship with Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Wentworth through their contact with the Umana Magnet High School.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

A (Core) Evaluation Team Leader is present at the McKay four days a week. The resource rooms are staffed by four full-time teachers. Approximately eighty (80) children, with a variety of vision, hearing and other problems are currently being helped.

bilingual

The McKay has four regular bilingual Italian classrooms. Four teachers and three aides serve students from grades one through six. Students participating in this program are included in every aspect of the educational program including the Mathematics and Reading Laboratories.

In addition, one bilingual Italian teacher serves the two Kindergarten I extended day classes, and there is a part-time Italian resource teacher, with her aide, five half-days per week.

title 1

A Title I reading program is available to eligible students. There are two full-time reading teachers with aides. Also there is a Title I Italian Bilingual Reading program in operation. This program has one teacher and one aide. A reading program for those students who have become ineligible for the Title I reading program is available with one teacher and an aide.

other 636

Tides Program: This program is operated by the Thompson Island Education Center. Marine Biology and seashore life are studied through classroom work

and several field trips out to the island.

Boston Zoological Society: Children in grades 4 and 5 are taking part in a program which includes studies of animal habitat and related animal behavior. This program is conducted in conjunction with the Boston Zoological Society.

Library: There has been a full-time librarian in the library since its inception. The library is well stocked with many new books. Each student has one library period per week with extra time allowed for special projects.

Extended Day Kindergarten: program is also offered at the McKay.

health

The school nurse spends part of each school day in the building. There is an adequate health room.

Teacher Comments

"I am very satisfied with the program here. Things are going along very smoothly. I anticipate continued progress in fulfilling our goals of establishing the best possible science program in any magnet school."

FACILITIES

This facility houses the following: cafeteria, auditorium, science rooms, woodworking shop, reading laboratory, math laboratory, art room, music room, Title I rooms, and a home economics room.

The McKay School is fifty-one years old and is in excellent condition. It has recently been painted throughout, and several rooms have been partitioned to provide privacy for teachers and students. The lighting throughout the building is currently being improved. A public address system should be installed by the spring of 1979.

A full hot lunch program is available for all students. This meal is prepared at the school and is served on a daily basis to students in the school's cafeteria.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The Racial Ethnic Parent Council and the Home and School Association work closely with the school. Parents are encouraged to visit the school at any time, and the principal and teachers are always accessible.

Parent Comments

"The Donald McKay takes a totally positive approach to education. My son comes home every day with new skills he wants to follow up on. All the children on my son's bus come home friendly, cooperative and constructive. In this healthy school atmosphere, the teachers seem to enjoy giving their best efforts; discipline problems and racial tensions are non-existent."

"This is my child's first year at the McKay. The curriculum looks great in the Magnet Book. I hope they can follow through and achieve that."

Editorial Comments

The wide variety of science and enrichment programs together with the emphasis on "the R's" makes the McKay a very attractive magnet elementary school.

It is interesting to note that the McKay goes through the sixth grade.

William H. Ohrenberger
Elementary School
175 West Boundary Road
West Roxbury, MA 02132
Telephone: 323-7456

Grades: K through 5
Principal: Dr. Mary Connolly

Total Enrollment: 517
White: 230 Black: 246 Other: 41

Average Class Size: 25

W.H. Ohrenberger

Principal Comments

The greatest asset of the Ohrenberger School is our understanding staff. The success of our educational program is due to the ability of our teachers to release and develop each and every facet of a child's mental growth.

The strong commitment of each teacher to fully develop the intellectual, physical, emotional and moral potential of each child is the hallmark of our school. Our excellent physical plant augments these efforts by providing fully equipped spaces for science, art, music, physical education and library projects.

Multi-cultural themes and projects pervade our curriculum and are instrumental in providing the Ohrenberger School with a happy, creative milieu where parents, teachers and pupils work together for the maximum growth of each individual.

Educational Program

The Ohrenberger School offers its student body a well-rounded elementary program with an emphasis on reading and math. Specialists provide programs in the fields of science, art, music, and physical education. Each specialist meets with each classroom once a week. The older students (grades 4 and 5) also take home economics once a week.

The Ohrenberger was built with four main teaching areas. Each area, called a "pod", consists of an open center space with "rooms" adjacent to it. Because of the shape of the building and use of folding partitions, each classroom has a distinct identity. This year, three pods contain combinations of two consecutive grades. That is, three first grades and one second grade form one pod. The fourth pod contains the four substantially separate 766 classes.

This year, most students have reading instruction with their home room teachers. The teachers use a variety of materials and methods to teach reading. The students are grouped on the basis of a pretest and performance. These groupings are flexible and may change any time during the year. For mathematics, the students are grouped within the pod - again, on the basis of testing and performance.

The team of teachers in each pod decide if the reading and math groups will be home based or be involved in movement among different classes in a pod. Therefore, the amount of changing for subjects may vary from pod to pod or from year to year. These teams also meet frequently to deal with other education related issues.

The Ohrenberger combines the traditional sense of order and discipline with flexibility, and a feeling of open space.

Magnet Theme

The multicultural theme at the Ohrenberger is designed to develop an understanding of various ethnic backgrounds. Programs are constructed to expose the child to the customs and behaviors of various cultures. Ethnic backgrounds are explored and an appreciation for the differences and similarities in ethnic backgrounds is encouraged.

Over the last year, a committee of three parents, three teachers, a parent coordinator and a consultant from Emmanuel College have worked together to develop an outline of study for the students. The course begins with the unit, "All About Me", moves on to human rights, and then focuses on specific cultures and histories.

The committee has produced packets of information and materials for each grade level on the different units. They have also invited a number of entertainment groups and speakers to complement and expand on the topics studied.

All homeroom teachers teach units on multiculturism. Much of the work done in music and art (and to a lesser degree, in science and physical education) revolves around the magnet theme.

Pairings

university

The Ohrenberger has been paired with Emmanuel College for three and one-half years. Emmanuel supplies the Ohrenberger with a consultant for the multicultural theme, and Emmanuel students who tutor at the school.

The Ohrenberger-Emmanuel grant also provides the funds to pay for the curriculum team of parents and teachers on multiculturism, the science teacher, the physical education teacher, a library aide, and the parent-helper program.

cultural

The Harvard Museum of Comparative Zoology has worked with the Ohrenberger for three years. For the last two years, the program has focused on environmental studies. The program involved both museum trips and work at the school. With help from the museum staff and their teachers, the fifth graders - the primary beneficiaries of this pairing - have built a mini-museum. This display, located in a section of the

school library, contains many projects on and about the environment, as well as an exhibit on dinosaurs (the course of study three years ago).

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

The Ohrenberger offers a full range of programs and services for children with special needs. One and a half Evaluation Team Leaders coordinate the special services required to fulfill the educational plan of students. There are five resource teachers (one for each grade level) who service the children mainstreamed into the regular educational program. The time spent with the resource room teacher depends upon the amount of remediation needed.

There is also a substantially separate program which is comprised of four classes of low functioning multi-handicapped children. These pupils spend their day in a highly structured and specialized program. Those who are able, join their peers for some activities.

title 1

There are currently 42 students being served by the Title I reading program with a teacher and an aide.

esaa

ESAA funds pay for a part time ESAA teacher to work on reading and math skills with students who have lost Title I service due to a change of address or school.

remedial services

A reading coordinator offers remedial and enrichment services to students who do not receive Title I or Chapter 636 assistance.

other 636

The Ohrenberger has four operating mini-grants. One grant pays for extra field trips for the substantially separate classes. The other three grants provide funds to pay for supplementary science activities and materials for the science club and special units on animals and plants.

health

The school nurse is at the Ohrenberger three days a week, and is on call at a nearby school the other two days. There is a large health room in the building.

Teacher Comments

"The staff forms a cohesive unit. We exchange a lot of materials and ideas."

"I think the primary grades spend a lot of time coordinating the theme of multiculturism with general coursework. I know I try to work it in all the time."

"At the fifth grade level, we do formal work with the multicultural theme once a week, making informal connections whenever they seem appropriate."

"One of the major strengths in our educational program is flexibility of grouping - a student can be successful on whatever level he is functioning."

FACILITIES

The facility contains the following: library, gymnasium, cafeteria/auditorium, art room, science room, home economics room, music room, reading center, five (5) resource rooms, and two (2) Title I rooms. The building is seven (7) years old and in "good to excellent" condition.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The REPC, a full council with a nucleus of three members from last year, is actively involved in educational issues. It was instrumental in restructuring the multicultural magnet theme, and is currently working to evaluate and revise the program where necessary.

The Home and School concentrates on organizing social functions for both parents and students. They help raise money and organize the field day, an all-day event held in the spring for the student body.

Parent Comments

"I have found the teachers very cooperative whenever I wanted to discuss my child's progress. They really seem tuned in to the needs and abilities of the students. And they take time to talk with the kids."

"One year my child had a problem with her teacher and it showed in her work. But, overall, I'm very pleased with the education she's getting at the Ohrenberger."

"Discipline in this school is very good. It's fantastic."

"The library is truly impressive. I've never seen anything like it in another Boston Public School - but what I like best is that the children are really learning how to use the library."

"The multicultural theme is off the ground now; and I think the REPC was instrumental behind that. It still needs to be further integrated into the curriculum. It's a subtle theme, so we won't see all the results for years. But I've already seen some concrete examples of change in my child."

Editorial Comments

The people in this building - students, teachers, and the principal, seem happy, confident, relaxed and productive. It is obvious that there is a good working relationship among the teachers, administration, and parents built on concern, hard work, and success.

The great appeal of the Ohrenberger lies in the fact that it is a well-run elementary school with a heavy emphasis on basic skills as well as a great variety of enrichment programs. The newly organized multicultural theme adds another dimension to an already rich environment.

William Monroe Trotter
Elementary School
135 Humboldt Avenue
Roxbury, MA 02121
Telephone: 426-3180 - 427-3181

Grades K-5
Principal: Barbara Jackson
Total Enrollment: 637
Black: 313 White: 260 Other: 64

Average Class Size: 26

Principal Comments

The Trotter School is receptive to trying out new ideas, new materials and promising techniques. The staff works to create an environment that encourages children to become increasingly involved in their own learning. The Trotter is a special world for children.

Educational Program

The school's open education program is unique in that it employs such a wide variety of learning and teaching styles. Many classes are multi-grades. That is, children are combined from two different grade levels. Some classes are self-contained and one teacher provides all the classroom instructions. In others, two teachers work together as a team; they join their classes by opening the moveable walls which separate the rooms. This arrangement helps the children to work at their own levels and facilitates peer teaching. In all classrooms the work is individualized and students are encouraged to work independently.

The Trotter emphasizes basic skills. That is, reading, language arts (written and oral communication), and math are stressed. Instruction in the classroom is supplemented in the learning centers (shared by the classrooms in each pod) which are intended to stimulate curiosity and self-motivation through the use of audio-visual materials. All children have classes once a week in art, music and physical education. There is an instrumental program open to children in grades 2-5 and a chorus of up to 80 children. The school has a good library which the children are encouraged to use for independent work. Sewing is offered to the fourth and fifth graders.

The school is also involved in a pilot guidance program through which counseling is offered to each child. Teacher and parent conferences are also an important aspect of this program.

William M. Trotter

Throughout the year, the teachers keep a student profile on each child's work and progress in reading and math. These profiles follow the student from grade to grade, beginning in grade 1. This year a writing scope and sequence profile for each grade is being developed. During the year the teachers keep in touch with the parents on a regular basis by means of report cards, scheduled conferences, and/or telephone calls. A special Open House is held on a Sunday in the fall of each school year to provide an opportunity for the parents to see the school.

Magnet Theme

The focus of the theme is open innovative education. The Trotter embraces the philosophy that "open education is more than a method of teaching."

This is an attitude toward learning and the learning processes which acknowledges that, although educational goals may be the same for all children, each child must be aided and supported to find his own way in attaining these goals by individualized instruction.

The school is committed to offering a variety of teaching styles to meet the individual needs of its students, while trying to create an environment in which children can work at their own pace.

The Trotter is part of the model demonstration sub-system which also includes the Wheatley Middle School and Copley Square High School.

Pairings

university

The Trotter is paired with Curry College, in a basic skill proposal, this program has three components. It provides for a Math Lab Teacher/Coordinator, for a parent coordinator, and the part time service of a consultant from Curry College to assist the staff in the development and implementation of a written language program for grades 1-5. This consultant also supervises student teachers from Curry College in an ongoing program with undergraduate students working in the Trotter classroom.

cultural

The pairing with the Museum of Comparative Zoology provides for science lessons and visitations to the Museum of Comparative Zoology for upper grade students and special lessons for lower grade classes. A science resource room at the Trotter is also being developed in this proposal.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

Children with special needs are core evaluated and referred to services commensurate with their needs. Instruction for children with special needs is provided in three resource rooms for grades 1-5 and one Early Childhood resource room. An Evaluation Team Leader is available on a full time basis to coordinate the program activities.

title 1

The Title I program has four reading teachers, one math teacher and three Title I Kindergarten aides.

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esaa

"Positive Approach to Discipline and Schools without Failure."

This program involves training teachers and parents to conduct seminars for other teachers and parents, and provides them with techniques for dealing with behavior problems in non-punitive ways.

remedial services

There is a full time Remedial Reading teacher who gives direct services to children on a daily basis. She is also available to teachers and parents for reading resource materials and information.

other 636

Unified Language Arts Program for gifted and talented students.

Chapter 636 funding has also been obtained to encourage more parent involvement in the school. This funding has been used to hire a part time parent coordinator who serves as liaison between parents and the school and organizes parent activities. It has also paid for the publication of a newsletter to keep parents informed about what is going on in the school.

career

The Trotter is a part of a pilot career awareness program which provides new direction and long-range plans for a general program in career education. Five portable cabinets containing various career materials and audiovisual machines have been purchased for the building. Grades K-5 are serviced by the career awareness program.

At present, the Trotter is the only elementary public school in the city of Boston to have full time services of a Guidance Advisor. The basic purpose of this program is to assist each child in realizing his/her academic and social potential. The adviser serves as a resource for children, their teachers, and parents. Counseling is available for any child in the school who wishes it.

The agencies that work along with the Guidance Program are Solomon Carter Fuller Mental Health Center, University Hospital, and Children's Hospital Medical Center.

health

A school nurse spends 3 days, full time at the school, and the remaining two days on a part time basis. There is also a dental office that occasionally is serviced by the Roxbury Comprehensive Medical Center.

other

The Trotter has a working relationship with Boston School Volunteers, Boston Technical High School's Flexible Campus program, The Urban Teaching Laboratory, and The Educational Development Center.

Teacher Comments

"The Trotter is a fine school."

"I strive to teach them to accept one another as equals, work with each other not against, and this can be done through their classes and day to day learning experiences."

"I want to help my students understand the differences and similarities of people throughout the city."

"I am concerned with reaching the parent, communication seems to be poor because of the citywide characteristics of the school and it becomes more difficult to reach everyone."

"The school is a fine school. Would like to see more funds available."

FACILITIES

The Trotter School houses a library, four learning centers, auditorium, gymnasium, cafeteria, music and art rooms, reading center, and a Math Laboratory. The building is ten years old. There are some major repairs needed, but the faculty and parents are addressing these issues.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The Racial Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) is very active and supportive of the programs in the school. They assist in obtaining the necessary repairs and alterations to the building. They are also involved in the planning and implementation of Chapter 636 proposal. The Trotter Parent Association is also very active in the school program, and a parent-teacher liaison committee meets periodically to address school concerns. Parents are invited to attend all the meetings of the school's Educational Plan Committee.

Parents have been actively involved with the Home Reading Program. All students, who are reading, borrow books from the school to read at home. The reading is monitored at home by the parents who report the number of pages the child has read. Children receive free books of their own choosing after reading a specified number of books. The Home and School Association through its fund-raising efforts has been instrumental in purchasing the books necessary for this program.

Parent Comments

"It's a wonderful school. It gives parents a chance to be part of our child's development."

"Parents are encouraged to visit the school. They give tours and explanations of school programs to anyone who wishes it. It's better if you schedule it by calling first."

"The kids learn their ABC's, but they also learn music, art, library, and so many other things through the extra programs. It's a shame we just don't have enough funds for those programs and keep them going."

Editorial Comments

I have found the Trotter School to be a beautiful school. The aides are very helpful and very supportive of the teacher, principal, and parents.

The gym is well equipped and the cafeteria is very clean and well taken care of. The main office is very pleasant, and I was well received during my visits there. Parents usually convey their attitudes to their children, and I have a positive attitude towards a school with such concern for visitors and parents. It would certainly be a school I would be proud to send my children to.

middle schools

Martin Luther King
Middle School
77 Lawrence Avenue
Dorchester, MA 02121
Telephone: 445-4120

Grades: 6 through 8
Principal: Mrs. Will Ella Brown
Total Enrollment: 752
Black: 345 White: 301 Other: 106

Martin Luther King

Principal Comments

"Why is the King School regarded as one of the best middle schools in Boston? Because we have been free of racial or other trouble since the beginning of court-ordered desegregation. Because we have put together an innovative magnet program centering on Language Arts which has attracted students of every racial and ethnic group from every neighborhood in Boston. Because we run a school that is under control but not grim and humorless. Because we are open to students' and parents' input. Because we have benefited from a large Chapter 636 proposal which has brought many new materials and ideas into the school. Above all the King is noted for its warmth, sincerity and genuine concern for each child. Finally because we must, as a magnet school, try harder to provide the best possible education for our students."

Educational Program

The philosophy at the King School is to prepare the students in their choice of an Academic Program, whether it be College, Business, General or Vocational, recognizing that the middle school is the foundation for high school.

Reading is not only a major five (5) point subject, but because there is special emphasis on its importance, more than half of the staff is involved in improving the reading skills of the students. In addition to a homeroom reading program there are five (5) Title I and ESAA teacher aides. A multiplicity of tools are used including audio visual, movies and slides, and library. Reading is a major part of the educational program as it is integrated with the core subjects.

The 6, 7 and 8th grades have Mathematics, English, Social Studies, and Reading as five (5) point subjects. Art, Music, Health, French, Spanish, Shop and Home Economics are taught in short, concentrated courses. All 6th and 7th graders have French or Spanish; 8th graders may opt for more music or art instead of a language. All grades have a total of 35 points. 27 points

are needed for promotion and 81 points are needed to graduate. At least 20 of these points, over 3 years, must be in English and Math.

Every student at the King has a minicourse once a week with a total of five (5) minicourses of about seven weeks each during the year. The minicourses are in addition to the regular curriculum.

The King School has a comprehensive code of discipline, copies of which are distributed to students and parents at the beginning of the school year.

The grading system is standard (A, B, C, D, E), reported five (5) times a school year with warning notes sent home prior to issuance of report cards.

Magnet Theme

The improvement of writing and reading skills of all students is the primary goal of the magnet theme of language arts. Every student has reading five periods a week and additional time of five periods is given in language arts.

Pairings

university

The King School is paired with the Antioch Graduate Center in Cambridge. Accomplishments from the program include successful on-site staff development by a full time university coordinator and a full time educational coordinator. The teachers have been responsive, enthusiastic and helpful.

business

The Honeywell Computer Company has provided a course in basic programming for eighth graders during the last 6 years, but no 636 funds are used and it is not a pairing as such.

cultural

The Museum of Fine Arts was a collaborative program which takes students to the Museum and provides followup work in classrooms back at the school.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

One hundred and three (103) students are being served. All are in one system with five (5) mainstream teachers with one Learning Adaptive Behavior Laboratory. Most of the students are given additional instruction in subjects in which they need the most help.

bilingual

The King School has a Spanish bilingual department with four (4) teachers and two (2) aides, who serve fifty one (51) students.

title 1

This program is designed for students who need additional help with Reading and are eligible. There are two (2) teachers, two (2) aides, and eighty (80) students in this program.

esaa

This program provides for individualized teaching for students having problems in Mathematics or Reading.

other 636

Career Exploration program provides students small-group instruction and discuss

explorations in different possible careers.

Guidance services (2 counselors) cover support, enrichment, and remedial, with a focus on career guidance for eighth graders.

health

The King School has a three-times-a-week in-school nurse who is on call in a nearby school the other two days. The nurse has her own office.

Teacher Comments

"There have been no racial problems."

"The major strengths of the educational program have resulted in a well-rounded education that qualifies any 6th grader to advance to any 7th grade and any 7th grader to advance to any 8th grade."

"The King has improved but should not be complacent."

"In a few years this is going to be one of the best middle schools as it is moving in the direction of accountability for teachers and students."

FACILITIES

The King School was built in 1939 and is structurally sound. It has a gym, library, cafeteria and an auditorium.

The bathrooms and plumbing need considerable work, there is electrical wiring that needs to be fixed; the school needs painting, lights, some new blackboards, etc. Maintenance of building is poor. Plans for improvement have been promised and ignored.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Basketball, football, softball, volleyball are provided before and after school. There are two literary magazines and a student newspaper. The student council meets once every 3 weeks to discuss school issues such as transportation, choice of menus, and other school related concerns.

Student Comments

The eight (8) students who were interviewed were satisfied with teaching efforts, but none knew what the magnet theme was. Recommendation of friends appears to be the main reason for choosing King.

None recommended any major changes and of those changes suggested, none were in academics.

Although 6th, 7th, and 8th graders were involved in the student council; many students didn't know about the council. According to those students, discipline procedures need improvement. All agreed that teachers, communications, learning experience, were all good resulting in interesting classes.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is an active REPC. There is no Home and School Association. The REPC publishes a newsletter every 3 weeks. Further communication with parents is achieved through phone calls, letters, and visits to the school.

Parent Comments

The King was chosen because a better education was expected and the alternatives of the District School were not acceptable.

The responses as to original expectations being met were mixed. A student from the 6th Advanced class was bored in 7th from a lack of stimulation (no Advanced class). Another student in 7th by playing the flute (not possible in Parochial School) was stimulated to an educational advance.

Special Note: The interviews with the parents resulted in parents comments, but no matter how critical they were, all agreed that a return to the school would be yes.

Editorial Comments

Good homework policy; designed to stimulate initiative, responsibility and self-direction; provide practice and application of principles discovered; enrich school experience and develop permanent leisure interests in learning.

In the last three years there has been a negligible turn-over of teachers which adds to the stability of the learning experience in the school.

It has a full time Education Coordinator focusing on curriculum development, building of minimum standards, grade to grade curriculum plan, and development of the school's curriculum sharing center.

The curriculum sharing center is a progressive learning experience available to all teachers and the use of audio visual aides in depth is only part of the methods used.

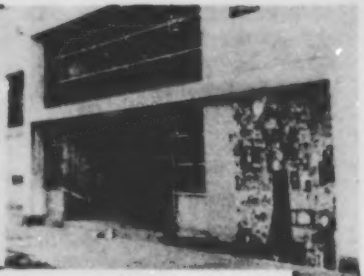
So much is to be seen at the King. So many fantastic programs are offered. I can only invite you to see for yourself, as I did.

- 60 -

Charles E. Mackey
Middle School
90 Warren Avenue (South End)
Boston, MA 02116
Telephone: 266-1968

Grades: 6, 7, 8
Principal: Dr. Lloyd A. Leake
Total Enrollment: 440
Black: 40% White: 40% Other 20%

Average Class Size: 30



Principal Comments

The Charles E. Mackey School can best be described as a comprehensive, progressive and imaginative inner-city magnet middle school. The Mackey can also be described as a no-nonsense school. Students are expected to follow the code of discipline and homework is mandatory. That is, homework is required for a minimum of three times per week in core subjects and two times per week in non hands-on elective subjects. The Mackey has a well-trained and student-centered faculty and staff and the educational program is designed to enhance each student's individual abilities.

Educational Program

The educational program at the Mackey School is designed to provide students with a learning experience that will prepare them for vocational and academic work at the high school level as well as instilling in them the social skills and attitudes necessary to live in harmony with themselves, society and the environment of today's world.

The Mackey School is therefore concerned not only with what the student is, but also with what he is allowed to become. The Mackey School seeks to develop in the student a sense of self-reliance.

The Mackey School curriculum is divided into three major components, including 1) the CORE, which includes subjects in Reading, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, English, applied arts, Health and Physical Education. 2) The ELECTIVES which include major courses which meet for six hours per week and minor courses which meet two hours per week. Major courses include experiences in Fine Art Apprentice (students work with professional artist), Athletics, Band, Careers, Creative Writing, French, Journalism, Pen Pals and School Service, and 3) INTENSIFIED LEARNING-BASIC SKILLS INSTRUCTION, which provides students with completely individualized experiences in reading,

writing, and mathematics. Accelerated study is also provided for advanced students.

Magnet Theme

The Magnet Theme of the school is Arts and Humanities. This is the branch of learning which primarily has to do with the cultural character of Mankind and includes such things as creative writing, poetry, painting, communication, and music as well as interpersonal and intercultural understanding.

Pairings - *university*

The Mackey School has a strong pairing with the Massachusetts College of Pharmacy. The College of Pharmacy has made its resources available to students, teachers and parents and has been actively involved with the school in developing a Chapter 636 funded program which touches all areas of the school's curriculum, including the expansion of the magnet theme, the creation and implementation of the Intensified Learning-Basic Skills Center and an elective program of study which reflects the concerns of the Racial Ethnic Parent Council.

Other Programs & Services

title 1 & esaa

Title I - Reading Program; ESAA - Special Compensatory Reading Program; Title VII - Bilingual Career Education; ESAA Mini-grant Program - Individual Teacher Programs; ESAA - EdCo Theatre Workshop; Margie J. Topf Dance Company; Museum of Fine Arts/Cultural Educational Collaborative-Museum Program; TRY-ARTS Artist-in-Residence Program; Mackey/United South End Settlements/Career Education Collaborative; Mackey/Massachusetts College of Pharmacy Collaborative Project; ESAA - Positive Approach to Discipline and Schools without Failure; ESAA - Reading Program.

career

Career Education is aimed at helping each individual through educational and vocational experiences become aware of his/her needs for employment in Industry, Health Services, Home Services or Business and Government. The Mackey School has one full-time Guidance Counselor and one Core Eva[illegible]ion Team Leader. The [illegible] is presently developing a [illegible]r resource center in colla[illegible]ration with the United South End Settlements at Harriet Tubman House.

special needs-766

The Special Needs program currently serves approximately ninety students in mainstreamed programs and five students in the substantially separate program. Presently, the school has three mainstream resource teachers, one bilingual mainstream resource teacher, one substantially separate teacher and one Core Evaluation Team Leader.

bilingual

The Mackey School has a Spanish Bilingual program with one class at each grade level. The sixth grade class is an Advanced Work class.

health

The Health Office is staffed by one part-time doctor and one part-time nurse.

Grading

The Mackey School uses standard grading procedures with report cards issued five times per year.

Teacher Comments

"Thirty students to a class is too many."

"Getting extra materials through Title VII is a real plus."

"Discipline is not strong enough. There is not enough direction from the central administration."

"The Mackey School has more things going for it than any school I have ever worked in."

"The merit and demerit system does not work for me discipline-wise, but the student detention center allows most of my students to get their education."

FACILITIES

The Mackey School opened in January 1959. It became a City-Wide Magnet Middle School in 1975-76. The building is of fire-proof construction. While the building is in very good and sound condition, several areas of needed repair are 1) students clothing closets, 2) student lockers in the gymnasium locker rooms. Individual student lockers have been requested as replacement for the classroom clothing closets. The school has a library, a 500 seat auditorium and a rather large gymnasium. In addition to nineteen (19) regular classrooms the school also has an Intensified-Basic Skills Learning Center, wood shops, home economic rooms for sewing and cooking and an all-purpose shop including capability for printing.

The Mackey School has a dining area for the students. A pre-packaged meal is shipped from a central kitchen and heated in the school building. Students may also bring lunches from home.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Since it is impractical to keep students in a city-wide magnet school after regular school hours, most extracurricular activities are incorporated into the school's regular curriculum as minor electi ves. Seasonal sports such as basketball, track and softball are offered after school.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The Mackey School has a very active Racial Ethnic Parents Council. Parents who wish to involve themselves in any role, looking for input toward their child's school and education are part of an active and enthusiastic R.E.P.C.

Parent Comments

"More parental involvement is needed on the R.E.P.C. Council."

"Parents need to play more of a role in discipline to support teachers and administration."

"Some revisions of the major and minor electives are needed."

"The school has many positive programs. Teachers are trying hard to help students in many ways."

"The R.E.P.C. is doing their best but is handicapped some by lack of parent participation."

Editorial Comments

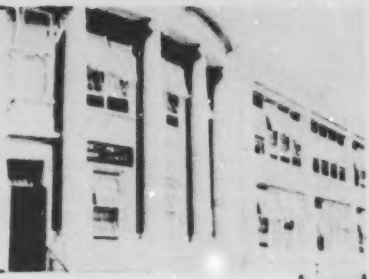
The Mackey should be complimented on being able to overcome the apparent obstacles which surrounded the school at its inception.

At present, a school which shows such a small faculty turnover, is to be commended.

A major inefficiency of this school, is the lack of any student lockers within the building, creating an uncomfortable day-to-day experience for students.

I feel, more homework should be instituted as a habit forming process so as to prepsre a student for high school and college encounters.

More parents should attend and participate in the R.E.P.C. involvement. Of course, this is true for all schools.



Phillis Wheatley
Middle School
20 Kearsarge Avenue
Roxbury, MA 02119
Telephone: 427-3340

Grades: 6 through 8
Principal: Eugene Ellis
Total Enrollment: 318
Black: 152 White: 130 Other: 36

Average Class Size: 20

Principal Comments

I am pleased with the dedication the administration, faculty, and students have shown in carrying out the theme of the school and each year it seems to be working better. Desegregation has not been a threat to us at the Wheatley because of the solid program which encourages social growth. At the Wheatley, students like to learn and teachers like to teach. I think our teachers are some of the best I've encountered in education.

Educational Program

The school program operates on a seven period day. The 1st, 2nd and 3rd periods one week are interchanged with the 5th, 6th and 7th the next. This provides variety in the schedule and the opportunity to have one's favorite subject when a student is at his/her best.

The basic subjects of the program are English, Math, Reading, and Social Studies. The entire school is involved in a cross-graded reading program. While half the school eats lunch, the other half of the student body is involved in a 45 minute reading period, and then the process is reversed. This program facilitates enrichment and remediation.

Reading tests are administered every spring and the Wheatley still maintains its position in holding the highest score when compared to other middle schools in Boston.

Sixth grade students take one trimester of French and one of Spanish. This is a sampling method that is used to help students develop a preference so that this early exposure to both languages will help him/her make a more suitable choice. Other electives offered are art, clothing, foods, health, industrial arts, physical education, science and woodworking. There are changes in electives 3 times per year.

Phillis Wheatley

The school operates on a trimester basis and grade reports are sent home to parents showing results of mid-term exams half-way through each trimester and at the end of each term.

Magnet Theme

The magnet theme of the Wheatley School is to promote academic excellence while providing an atmosphere that is conducive to social growth in a multi-ethnic setting. The Wheatley is a middle school that has been dedicated in carrying out its theme for over a decade. Through combined efforts, of administrators, parents, and students, the Wheatley has become a school which conveys much enthusiasm for learning.

Pairings

university

The Wheatley is now being paired for the first time with Salem State. One of the exciting projects that students and teachers have been working on is an indoor garden emporium. The REPC, faculty, and staff will be making plans with Salem State for next year.

cultural

The school has been paired with the Children's Museum and for the last few years they have been working on a social studies project involving Victorian Boston. The plan is for the project to continue next year along with an extension of projects involving each student's own neighborhood. Other project areas include Japan, China, ceramics and Simple Machines.

Also funded under Chapter 636 are several career education projects, including an exhibit on health careers, that will be displayed at the Children's Museum, New Wharf facility.

Other Programs & Services

special needs-766

Two resource rooms are made available to service students with severe remediation needs, learning disabilities, and emotional problems.

remedial services

Two reading teachers and two aides work with eighty students in small groups to provide remedial help.

This program is an extension of Title I for those students who were formerly serviced but who still require remedial help.

other 636

The Wheatley School is equipped with a library that has progressed greatly in the last few years due to funding through Chapter 636.

health

There is a nurse in the building four half days per week.

Teacher Comments

"Integration can work and does at the Phillis Wheatley."

"Some of the programs major strengths are that classes are small whereby students are able to develop themselves at their own rate, and also the good high school preparation with emphasis on careers."

"The Wheatley is a very comfortable school to teach in and the interpersonal relations between faculty members is a plus."

"I would prefer to have an updated guidebook."

"Interaction with parents is outstanding. Parents and teachers are able to set the tone in the school for good learning."

FACILITIES

The Wheatley School was built about fifty (50) years ago and is still in remarkably good condition. The interior was recently painted and a new lighting is due to be installed shortly. The building houses the following: auditorium, gymnasium, cafeteria, career center, library, computer terminals, playground area, art suite with ceramics and darkroom facilites.

The students of the Wheatley School make use of the swimming facilities at the Boy's Club.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is an active Racial Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) which meets once a month. The REPC has had an integral role in the development of Chapter 636 proposals.

Parents also volunteer their services in the library, in various classes, on field trips, and as workers with the Children's Museum - the school's cultural pairing partner.

Parent Comments

"I think the Wheatley has a competent faculty and a good educational program. I like the idea that my children are able to take Spanish earlier than usual. My role as a parent is to be ready and willing to do what is necessary for the benefit of all."

"I would like to see more maintenance work done in and around the building, especially in the home economics room."

"Three parent meetings a year is not enough. We are supposed to have four meetings and we should have them!"

"I'm not all that pleased with the program, a more basic teaching approach should be administered with more emphasis on mathematics."

Editorial Comments

"The atmosphere at the Wheatley is a warm and friendly one with a noticeably good rapport between faculty and students. The physical building is clean, but still needs improvements. Students graduating from the Wheatley will have first priority for seats at Copley High School."

Magnet High Schools

Directory

Name of School	Address	Telephone Number
Boston High	338 Newbury Street Boston, MA 02115	262-7424
Boston Latin Academy	380 Talbot Avenue Dorchester, MA 02124	825-4240
Boston Latin School	78 Avenue Louis Pasteur Boston, MA 02115	566-2250
Boston Technical High	205 Townsend Street Dorchester, MA 02121	445-4381
Boston Trade Comprehensive High	550 Parker Street Roxbury, MA 02120	445-6200
Copley Square High School	150 Newbury Street Boston, MA 02116	267-9805
English High School	77 Avenue Louis Pasteur Boston, MA 02115	738-6300
Madison Park High	55 New Dudley Street Roxbury, MA 02119	445-2440
Mario Umana Harbor School of Science and Technology	312 Border Street East Boston, MA 02128	569-6280

Further information about Citywide District IX High Schools and Community District High Schools can be found in the 1979-1980 publication entitled, Boston Public High Schools - A Guide for Parents & Students produced by Citywide Educational Coalition, 57 Chauncy Street, Boston, Mass. 02111, Telephone Number 542-2835.

Resource List

Boston Bar Association	742-0615
Boston Community School	542-5352
Boston Indian Council	232-0343
Boston Public Education Program	523-1890
Boston Public Schools	
General phone	726-6200
City-wide magnet school District IX	
Acting District Superintendent, Roger Beattie	442-1396
External Liaison Unit-Department of Implementation	726-6518
Information Center-Department of Implementation	726-6555
Boston Teachers' Union	288-2000
Chinese American Civic Association	426-8673
City-Wide Educational Coalition	542-2835
City-Wide Parents Advisory Council	426-2450
Community District Advisory Council - District IX	442-1399
Cultural Education Collaborative	267-6254
Education Collaborative For Greater Boston, Inc.	738-5600
Federation for Children with Special Needs	482-2915
Freedom House Institute on School & Education	445-3700
Center for Law & Education, Inc.	495-4666
La Alianza Hispana	427-7175
Mass. Advocacy Center	357-8431
Mass. Department of Education, Bureau of Equal Educational Opportunity	727-5880
(M.E.T.C.O.) Metropolitan Council for Educational Opportunity, Inc.	427-1545
Help for Children	727-8898
Regional	727-8367
Central	727-8996

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1979-80

boston public high schools

A GUIDE for Parents & Students

PREPARED by CWEC
The City-Wide Educational Coalition

943

boston public high schools

A GUIDE for Parents & Students

PREPARED by CWEC
The City-Wide Educational Coalition
52 CHAUNCY STREET - ROOM 305
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02111
Telephone: 542-2835

Publication produced through a contract with the Boston School Department, utilizing Chapter 636 funds provided by the State Department of Education.

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PREFACE

Dear Parents and Students:

As you consider the program options available in Boston's high schools, you are doing so at an exciting time in our city's history. Our public school system, the oldest in America, is rich in diversity and striving daily, using the unique resources of Boston, to improve the schools. Nowhere but in Boston are the high schools paired with twenty-two business firms and twenty-five colleges and universities in a variety of special programs which enhance regular curriculum offerings. Boston area cultural institutions are conducting programs in many of our high schools. Career and occupational education programs offer students the opportunity to develop both basic skills and occupational competencies required for satisfying careers in modern metropolitan Boston. The new Occupational Resource Center will provide students with additional training in both standard and emerging employment fields, e.g., communications technology, data processing, and alternative energy occupations.

On an annual basis, Boston Public High Schools offer 420 individual awards and scholarships. In June 1978, our senior graduates received $2.4 million worth of scholarships and financial aid.

The Boston Public Schools not only provide services to 70,000 students daily, but 20,000 others, mostly adults, attend classes in a variety of programs held evenings, weekends and during the summer. Handicapped students are provided prevocational and vocational programs preparing them for the world of work. Bilingual programs in eight different languages are available for students. There are councils in every school for the participation of parents, students and teachers in educational decision-making.

This unique publication on our high schools is the product of a joint effort between the Boston School Department and an independent citizens' organization, the City-Wide Educational Coalition, to provide information to parents and students on Boston's high schools. This document, prepared by CWEC with the resources of the Boston School Department, provides an independent judgement about our high schools. With the cooperation of school officials, parent researchers, selected and trained by CWEC, have gathered the data and developed the school descriptions presented on the following pages. They include comments of parents, students, and teachers to assist you in selecting the high school program which best meets your needs. However, as useful as these school descriptions are, they cannot present a complete picture of a particular school. Therefore, before making a choice, I urge you to visit the schools and talk with the principals, teachers, parents, and students.

I deeply appreciate your interest in the Boston Public Schools and encourage your criticism and comments as we strive to provide the best in education for the students of Boston.

Robert Wood
Superintendent of Schools

INTRODUCTION

This "Guide" has been developed in response to the need for parents and students to have more information about high school-level programs in the Boston Public Schools. While we do not suggest that this book fully meets that need, we hope its readers will find that it makes a valuable contribution toward that goal.

In producing the Guide, we have sought to involve a number of people. Parent Researchers were involved in conducting interviews with Headmasters and parents, gathering additional data, and writing descriptions of the high schools. Headmasters and program administrators were involved in responding to interviews and written questionnaires. Teachers, students and parents at each high school were involved in answering questions about their school. We deeply appreciate the time, effort and cooperation of all these participants.

With this large volume of facts and views, we then faced the task of deciding what material was most significant, and how to fit it into a limited amount of space. Using the researchers' reports as a foundation, and the administrators' responses and school documents as additional sources, we edited the articles into publication form.

The choice of "comments" was, in many instances, a difficult task. One reason for this is that the parents, students and teachers that provided them were selected at random, and therefore do not represent a "scientific" sample of opinion. Another reason is that there were many instances (usually reflected in the comments chosen) of contradictory views from the same school. What we have tried to do, therefore, is to present for the most part those comments that communicated concerns or opinions that were also expressed by others.

We have tried consistently to make this book accurate in every respect. Our pursuit of this objective has included careful use of documents, verifying school and program descriptions with administrators and repeated proof-reading. However, there are inevitably going to be some errors in the book, and we assume the responsibility for them.

It should be stressed once again that this book is not meant to be regarded as a complete or definitive source. It is not possible in a few pages to present a full picture of these highly diverse schools and programs. Rather, what we have attempted to produce is an overview, with some added perspective, that will be a helpful general resource to parents and students considering their educational options. This resource should be supplemented, however, by direct, first-hand investigation. Only by visiting the programs, and by speaking with the students, parents, teachers and administrators involved, will the readers of this book become able to make truly informed choices.

We are grateful to the staff, researchers and specialists that worked on this book; to the parents, students, teachers and administrators who contributed to it; and to the Boston School Department and the State Department of Education, which provided the financial support for this project.

We hope that you will find this Guide to be interesting and useful.

The Project Staff

Pauline Bailey, Edmund Crotty, Rose Edwards, Mary Moonves

HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

There are 4 main sections to this Guide: "High Schools", "Special Programs", "Co-operative Industrial & Business Magnet Programs", and "Post Graduate Programs". In developing the articles within each section, we have tried to present information in a generally consistent format, in order to facilitate comparisons by readers. There are some variations, due either to differences in the amount of information provided by the schools or to our own editorial judgements about the relative importance of particular items. For the most part though, the articles within a section are composed in a similar fashion. In the High School and Special Programs sections, the articles (except for that on the CRC) consist of the following parts: Educational Program - This part begins with a general statement of the philosophy and/or general nature of the school. Where there may be one, the Magnet Program, open to students from any part of the city, is then identified. If there is a Bilingual Program, it is described next, giving the language(s) of instruction, enrollments and major programs offered. Under Courses, the objectives and course requirements are given for the major academic programs (such as Business Education or College Preparatory). Also, information is given about the range of elective courses available. "Career Exploration" describes the school's treatment of the Career Exploration Program required for all 9th grade students. Also described here are other career awareness and information resources for students. The "Special Needs" portion of the article contains information about the resources and staff available to students who have special needs and are entitled to services under Chapter 766.

Under Other Programs and Services special activities, funded by such sources as Chapter 636 (State) and the Emergency School Assistance Act (federal), are noted. These activities include partnerships (pairings) with educational, cultural & business institutions. Also listed are additional services & opportunities provided beyond the school (such as Flexible Campus, Educational Collaborative [EDCO] and community organizations and agencies) and within the school (Title I, guidance, health & food).

Post Graduate Information gives a breakdown of the information the school has on what the members of last year's senior class have done since graduation.

Headmaster's Statement - This was submitted by the administrator of the school, in response to our invitation to prepare a 100 word statement that would be run without editing.

Facilities - This part contains information about the age, size and features of the school building, along with any current plans for major repairs and alterations.

Teacher Comments - These are drawn from responses to teacher questionnaires that were distributed to a random sample of teachers at the school.

Student Activities - This part lists sports & extra-curricular opportunities offered. It also notes the student government organization and usually includes information on student discipline at the school.

Student Comments - These were taken from responses to student questionnaires distributed to a random sample of the school's students.

Parent Involvement - This part indicates what parent organizations exist at the school, how frequently they meet, & the contact they have with the administrator.

Parent Comments - These come from interviews conducted by the parent researchers, with a random sample of parents having children at the school.

Researcher Comments - This is a statement by the parent researcher about the school. In some cases the researcher seeks to make an assessment of particular programs, or of the entire school. In other cases, the researcher chose just to give some additional data. These comments are intended to give impressions, NOT a summary evaluation of the school. Editorial Comment - This heading indicates that the comment was written, & the program research was done, by a member of the Project Staff rather than one of the parent researchers.

CHARLESTOWN HIGH ↑

COPLEY SQUARE HIGH ↑

high schools

ENGLISH HIGH ↓

Boston High

BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL
338 NEWBURY STREET
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02115
Telephone: 262-7424

Joseph L. Ippolito, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 640
White: 265; Black: 274;
Other Minority: 101

A "Magnet" District 9 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The educational program at Boston High School is designed around the individual needs of students, particularly those students intending to enter the business world. Regular attendance at school, the willingness and ability to work, and, adherence to the school's strict discipline procedures are necessary components of the educational program and therefore required of all students.

MAGNET PROGRAM: The magnet theme at Boston High is "Work/Study". This theme is incorporated into all subject areas. Under the Work/Study program, students attend classes for half the school day, in order to fulfill academic requirements; then they spend the other half of the school day in paid employment, learning marketable skills in various fields of business. A student who maintains her/his part-time job earns five (5) Boston school credits towards their diploma.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: There is a Spanish bilingual program at Boston High. The 47 students enrolled in this program receive extra instruction in English. A special reading program is also provided for these students. Placement in regular classroom settings is made for bilingual students as soon as their language skills reach the level sufficient for participation.

COURSES: Some of the course offerings available at Boston High are as follows: Grade 9 - Math I; Civics; Algebra I; Typing I; Reading; Critical Reading & Composition. Grade 10 - Basic & Applied Math II; Geometry; General Science and Biology; Typing II; Reading; World History; and Modern History. Grade 11 - Chemistry; Applied Math III; United States History; Office Practice I; Typing III; Algebra II; World History; and Modern History. Grade 12 - Consumer Education (mandatory for all students); Physics; Solid Geometry; Trigonometry; Applied Math IV; Office Practice II; Typing IV; and History.

In addition to its standard curriculum, Boston High has some elective course offerings, and others are being developed for the 1979-80 school year.

"Career Exploration": Career education is offered to Boston High students through the Flexible Campus program and their experiences at work sites. Testing for appropriate placement in courses and at job sites takes place with input from parents, students and teachers. All 640 Boston High School students take part in the Flexible Campus program.

"Special Needs": There are three (3) special education classes, one (1) full-time Core Evaluation Team Leader (CETL), and 4 resource rooms at Boston High, servicing 98 students with identified special needs.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: Boston High School's university pairing is with Boston State College. Under this pairing a tutorial program has been developed.

The business institution paired with Boston High is Prudential Insurance. A "Close-up" program, help with the yearbook and a senior banquet have been provided through this pairing.

A Title I program provides remedial assistance in Reading and Math to students in grades 9 and 10.

Businesses; universities; hospitals; city, state and federal agencies --- numbering over 100 --- all provide job sites to Boston High School. A few of these are the First National Bank, John Hancock, Gillette, Filenes, Mass. General Hospital, Peter Bent Brigham Hospital, Northeastern University, Liberty Mutual, New England Life, U.S. Customs Service, Litton Office Products, Williams Business Products, New England Adding Machine Co., and Mobil stations around the Boston area.

The Mobil Company offers to teach 12th grade students the practical application of money management, basic car upkeep, and the phases of managing a Mobil gas station (with some practice, where possible).

There is no Guidance Department at the school. Counseling is provided by job specialists, teachers and other staff, in the areas of career counseling, course selection, personal counseling and orientation for new students.

Guidance materials are available for students in all classrooms.

A full-time nurse is available at the school and the services of a doctor are available.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Of 127 graduates last year, 30 went to college, 1 entered a business training program, 7 entered military service and 71 are presently employed. Eighteen students received scholarships for further study.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

(The Headmaster has requested that his message in last year's Magnet School Guide be repeated.)

"Just send me students who are willing and able to work and attend school regularly. No other requirements are necessary. Because of the nature of the program, the Headmaster needs the option to transfer students who refuse to work, cannot work, or who are disruptive at work, where jobs are lost."

FACILITIES

Boston High School is located in a business and residential area that dates back to the late 1800's. Originally, sections of the school were specialty shops, which were renovated for use as a school in 1968.

The school is very segmented and classes are sectioned off, a situation which the Headmaster feels is beneficial to the school's program.

There are 4 floors to the building. Among the school's features are 4 science labs, 4 language labs, 4 resource rooms, 8 typing rooms, and 4 business machine rooms. There is also an auditorium and a library.

There are no gym or cafeteria facilities. There are machines from which students may obtain food.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"The school is a natural setting for non-academic students!" * "We offer paid job experience coupled with the development of good work habits." * "Our school enables students to make more meaningful use of their time and to keep out of trouble situations." * "I have found the physical facilities as well as the availability of materials to be fairly adequate for our educational program." * "The students at the school behave according to a rigid set of guidelines which is well enforced by the administration." * "There has been a recent decline, in general, in the working relationship of the faculty with administration."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

There is a Student Council at the school with 92 elected members. There is also a Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC).

There are no sports programs, no clubs, no school newspaper, in short, no extra-curricular activities available for students at Boston High School.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The students get along with each other, white & black. There is no fighting or any kind of violence in this school." * "Teachers don't let the students speak their mind." * "The morning students should have a bus just like the afternoon students." * "The hallways are too small. You have to wait in line to go up the stairs." * "You get points for working and if you like business courses there are many to choose from."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

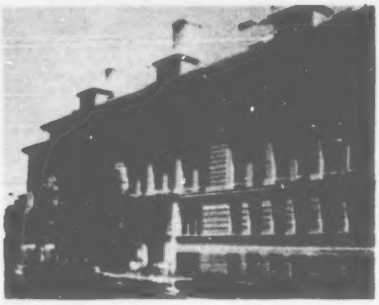
There is a Racial/Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) which is trying to recruit parents. The Community District Advisory Council (CDAC) representative is assisting in the recruitment effort.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"More schools should be more thorough with students as this one has been. This is my fifth boy going there." *"I like the school as is." * "It is a waste of time for children who are too young to work." * "They give my daughter more incentive." * "They have too high standard of discipline and do not take time to consider child's point of view before dismissal." * "The discipline code of the school is very strict." * "I like the discipline procedures." * "The school is run very nicely and has a nice faculty."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

This is a no-frills educational institution: no extra-curricular activities; no gyms; no 636 monies; no ESAA monies; no cafeteria; no home economics; no miscellaneous programs (such as art, music, etc.); and no breaks between classes. The school day is very short and ALL time is used carefully so there is no time for extraordinary discipline measures. Boston High School wishes to project an image of success and a desire to excel and encourages all students to develop these qualities. Therefore, students too young for work and students who cannot or do not wish to work and adhere to stern discipline procedures, should consider another school.

Latin Academy



BOSTON LATIN ACADEMY
380 TALBOT AVENUE
DORCHESTER, MASSACHUSETTS 02124
Telephone: 825-4240

Louise Dooley, Acting Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 1002
White: 613; Black: 278;
Other Minority: 111

A "Magnet" District 9 school
Admission based on entrance examination
Grades 7-12

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The educational program at this school is built upon the objectives of getting students ready for college. The academic work-load requires that students must develop and maintain good study habits and good attendance. The teaching method is traditional with strong emphasis on preparation and performance. Students are expected to spend at least two hours on homework each night. Home lessons are assigned in all subjects every day, and tests are administered weekly. Remedial assistance is available in all subject areas.

MAGNET PROGRAM: The theme of Boston Latin Academy is traditional classical college preparatory studies. The school's emphasis is on academic excellence. Students are admitted at the 7th or 9th grade levels, on the basis of examination scores.

COURSES: Courses of study are designed so that students entering Boston Latin Academy for either the six (6) year program or the four (4) year program will have a complete college preparatory experience. Students are required to take Math and English each year. Latin is required every year except in the senior year of students in the six year program. Most grade 7 students take Developmental Reading. Each grade 8 student must take typewriting.

Science courses taught at the school are: General Science, Biology, Chemistry and Physics. Modern language courses are offered in French, German and Spanish. Choices among these languages may be made in the 9th or 10th grade. Although some electives have been introduced, there is little change made in course offerings from year to year.

"Career Exploration" is worked into the curriculum at each grade level, with a different focus each year in grades 9 - 12.

"Special Needs": There are only four students presently at the school who are identified as having special needs.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: Boston Latin Academy is paired with Regis College. This pairing offers students a tutorial program in which students in need of tutoring are teamed with either a Regis College student or another Boston Latin Academy student.

Regis also offers enrichment programs in Art, Music, French and Science. Other services provided include: visiting lecturers, a student council conference day, and a three-week pre-admission review course in English, Math and study techniques.

A newsletter, the BLAREC, is published jointly by Regis and the RESC.

The business paired with Latin Academy is International Business Machines. IBM provides a computer terminal and offers computer mathematics courses. In addition, it has offered job placement, scholarships and a career opportunities program.

The guidance Department offers assistance in the areas of career counseling, course selection, college admissions requirements, personal counseling, and orientation for new students.

There are three (3) full-time guidance counselors at the school. Each counselor is responsible for two grades. All guidance counselors are involved in attendance and other personal problems for which students may need help or assistance. Appointments are made by counselors at a parent, teacher, or student request.

Parents are notified in advance if a student is doing poorly. Notices have to be signed by a parent and returned to the school. This is done every two months.

There are classes offered in the Summer for those students in need of additional help or those students who have failed a subject.

The school has utilized the services of Freedom House, Roxbury Counseling Service and the YMCA

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Of 166 students graduated in 1978, 162 went to college and four went into a job. Scholarship assistance was granted to 150 of the graduates.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Boston Latin Academy offers a strong classical college preparatory program. It is open to boys and girls from all parts of the city who are admitted on the basis of their position on the entrance examination list. Students enter at grade seven or nine.

The school offers many club and athletic programs in which the students are urged to participate. The school is paired with Regis College and I.B.M.

FACILITIES

The main building of the school was constructed in 1910. Although much concern has been expressed about the condition of the facilities, there are no plans for major changes at this time. The library is well-stocked and has a full-time librarian.

The school has a gym, a cafeteria and an auditorium. In addition, the school has five science labs, two art rooms, a typing room, a resource room, and a language lab (listening) room.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"Students are encouraged by a healthy learning environment to compete with one another."* • *"Things run fairly smoothly."* • *"The physical facilities are dirty, crowded."* • *"Teacher-parent communication is mostly coordinated by the guidance department."* • *"There is an active alumni association with good contacts for college placement and career advice."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

There is a wide range of extra-curricular activities available to students. Club activities include: Math team, Latin, Afro-American, German, French, Chinese-American, Chess, Drama, Athletic, Folk Group, Chorale, Spanish, and Italian.

Varsity sports include: bowling, softball, baseball, volleyball, swimming, soccer, track, basketball, hockey, tennis, badminton, crew and sailing.

Regular art classes, music and glee club are also available.

The school has a Student Government Association.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"Firm patterns of study and learning have been established."* ★ *"We need a new building."* ★ *"Although the competition is strong, the students do not fiercely attack each other for points."* ★ *"The school spirit is absolutely wonderful."* ★ *"We are not allowed enough free time because of homework."* ★ *"We do not have enough new subjects that we can choose."* ★ *"I have come to love the school for what it stands for."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The REPC (Racial/Ethnic Parent Council) and the Home and School Association are both actively involved in program planning, fund-raising, and other activities at the school.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"My expectations have been filled completely."* ★ *"The teachers are excellent."* ★ *"More tutors are needed to help those students that need it."* ★ *"All my expectations have not been met."* ★ *"The school needs to be more opened."* ★ *"The academic program is exceptional."* ★ *"New facility is needed."* ★ *"They give students lots of homework."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

Boston Latin Academy offers an excellent college preparatory program. Only academic subjects are stressed. There are no vocational programs offered. The school enjoys an excellent reputation as being one of the best schools in the system. This reputation is reflected in the number of graduates that go on to college.

There is some concern about the age and condition of the building, and additional support services are needed, especially in the area of tutoring. Students planning on entering this school should keep in mind the amount of work and preparation attending Boston Latin Academy involves. Classwork is supplemented by homework, and attendance is of the utmost importance.

Note: Assignment to Boston Latin Academy is based on SSAT (Secondary School Admission Test) scores. Application to take the SSAT must be made at the beginning of the school year. Forms may be obtained from middle school principals or exam school headmasters. The tests are held in December of each year for admission to the school the following September. Tests are given to 6th grade students for entry into 7th grade, and to 8th graders for entry at the 9th grade level.

Boston Latin

BOSTON LATIN SCHOOL
78 AVENUE LOUIS PASTEUR
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02115
Telephone: 566-2250

Michael G. Contompasis, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 2055
White: 1493; Black: 297;
Other Minority: 265

A "Magnet" District 9 school
Admission based on entrance exam
Grades 7-12

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Boston Latin School, one of Boston's 3 "exam schools", offers a Classical Liberal Arts College Preparatory program for students from grades 7 to 12. While the program includes a range of college prep subjects, there is an emphasis on English and foreign languages. Students receive approximately 2-3 hours of home assignments each day.

MAGNET PROGRAM: The school's "Magnet Theme" is "Classical College Preparatory". A major feature of this theme is an Advance Placement Program for qualified juniors and seniors. This program gives these students an opportunity to take freshman-level college courses in 13 subject areas, allowing them to gain advanced academic standing upon entering college. As another aspect of its intensive academic focus, the school offers an advanced work Honors Program for grades 8-12 in all subject areas.

COURSES: Each student's program includes English, Latin, Math and Physical Education. Sciences taught at the school are Earth Science (grade 8), Biology, Chemistry, and Physics. Foreign language courses are available in French, German, Italian and Spanish. Classical Greek is also taught. Students in grades 7 and 8 take a standard course. Computer Programming is required for all juniors. Electives may be chosen beginning in grade 9. The school offers a number of courses in Music.

"Career Exploration": Career education at Latin School involves helping the student determine his/her goals in life and what area of work she/he is interested in. A Career Day program is held for juniors, with representatives from health, law and business professions providing information to students. A Women's Day career program has also been held at the school.

There is a Mass. Occupational Information System (MOIS) computer terminal available to students.

"Special Needs": There is a member of the school staff responsible for overseeing the provision of services to students with special needs.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: Boston Latin School has received $48,000 in State Chapter 636 funding for 1978-79. This money has been used to support pairings with other institutions and to develop several programs. Wellesley College, the school's university partner, has developed the Summer Discovery, Tutorial, Modern Dance, Drama, Computer, and Language Lab programs. The school's cultural partners, the Franklin Park & Stoneham Zoos, have developed an Animal Behavior program. There is also a program with the Boston Symphony. The Federal Reserve Bank, as the school's business partner, provides computer training and career education.

With $55,000 in federal ESAA funds, a guidance and counseling component has been developed for the school.

A number of Flexible Campus opportunities are available to students at Latin School. These include university study, internships (with a business, government, community, social and cultural institutions), independent study, and tutorial programs.

There are 5 guidance counselors at the school. Guidance materials such as college catalogues and financial aid packets are available to students in the Guidance Office and the library.

There is a 3 week orientation program offered in August to students entering the 7th and 9th grades. This program assesses the reading, math and study skills of the incoming students and seeks to build them up. The students also get to meet teachers and become acquainted with the school itself. (Chapter 636 funds are used to support this program.)

Additional services are provided by a number of neighboring institutions (Emmanuel, Simmons and Boston State Colleges) and community agencies (Alianza Hispana, Freedom House and the South Cove Community Health Center).

There is a full service cafeteria at Boston Latin where breakfasts and hot lunches are prepared.

Two nurses are assigned to the school & 1 physician visits the school daily.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 242 students graduated from Boston Latin. Of these, 229 went to college (170 received scholarships), 2 entered technical school, 2 entered business training programs and 8 are presently employed.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Boston Latin School, founded in 1635, is recognized as having one of the most outstanding College Preparatory programs in the country. The school provides any qualified student with the opportunity to develop his/her academic talents to the fullest. Our students are expected to excel in all their endeavors. A student who wishes to further his/her education will be given an excellent foundation at Boston Latin School.

FACILITIES

The Latin School building was constructed in 1922. It has 4 floors, and it can accommodate about 2150 students according to the administrator. Some of the features of the building are 2 Art rooms, a resource room, 7 science labs, a Typing room and a language lab. The building also has a gym, an auditorium and a library (with a full-time librarian). A specific alteration that is to begin this year is the renovation of the heating system. Other changes sought for the school are a renovation of the plumbing and an expansion of program space, particularly for physical education.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"We offer academically talented students the opportunity to realize their full intellectual potential."* • *"The clearest manifestation of the 'college-preparatory' nature of Latin School is the sheer amount of work piled onto students."* • *"The school offers solid preparation in basics and in the necessities of organizing one's life and time."* • *"The parents appear to be quite supportive of the goals of the school."* • *"Like many other schools, the faculty is divided off into larger and smaller cliques."* •

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"Within departments there seems to be a willingness to share ideas, information and techniques." • "Some faculty members would like to see more openness on the part of the administration to faculty suggestions." • "The school is orderly, but, in some cases discipline has been clearly selective." • "The population of the school is college bound, and therefore internally motivated and competitive."

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The varsity sports available at Latin School are Baseball, Basketball (boys' & girls'), Hockey, Football, Softball, Golf, Volleyball (girls'), Wrestling, Badminton (girls'), Tennis, Soccer, Track (boys' & girls'), Crew, Bowling, Cross-country, Cheerleading, Sailing and Swimming (boys' & girls').

There is an intramural sports program that offers Basketball and Flag Football. A variety of club activities are carried out at the school, and there are programs for students in Art, Music, Drama & Dance. The school has a newspaper which is published 4 times a year. Transportation is provided for after-school activities.

There is a Student Council consisting of 150 members, elected from their home rooms. The Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC) operates as a committee of the larger Council. The Headmaster meets with the Council when requested. The Council participates in the annual revision of the school's Handbook.

The discipline system employs different degrees of response to misconduct. These range from demerits, to detention, to in-school suspension, to suspension from school. As of early January, there had been a total of 14 suspensions from the school this year.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"BLS offers an excellent preparation for college." • "Good liberal arts education." • "Too much homework." • "Some of the work is too hard for the kids, the teachers don't care." • "BLS has the best music program in Boston." • "Good tutoring program for those who need it." • "The school is unable to understand or keep up with the young adult of today." • "Curriculum is very confined." • "Give the students a little more freedom and a better choice of courses." • "There are clubs ranging from chess to drama to weightlifting to frisbee." • "Great school spirit and pride." • "We have a lot of prestige when applying to colleges."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Latin School has a Parent Council (REPC) which meets monthly, and sometimes more often. There is also a Home & School Association which meets each month. The Headmaster attends meetings of both groups as an invited resource person. Representatives of each group attend the other's meetings on a regular basis.

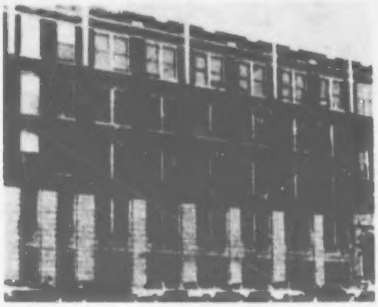
PARENT COMMENTS: *"The entire curriculum is good." • "Very rigid expectations as to behavior." • "The teachers are good and teach properly." • "The availability of faculty is great when parents call or visit." • "Best public school in the country." • "Standards at Latin are higher, which makes the transition into Latin more difficult for the students." • "More extensive tutoring should be available." • "When students feel pressured academically the Guidance Dept. could take a stronger position as far as providing counseling." • "There is not enough flexibility for a child to learn outside of the school setting." • "More programs are needed in career education." • "The school needs to be refurbished." • "The school is very responsive to parents' questions and needs."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

The atmosphere at Boston Latin School seems to be centered on providing the students with a top-level education, geared to prepare them for an institution of higher learning. Students are aware of what is expected of them as to their social behavior and their educational responsibilities, and they generally seem to abide by these expectations.

The administrator is most often in the building long after the end of the school day. He is available to parents to discuss any problems they may have.

Boston Technical



BOSTON TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL
205 TOWNSEND STREET
DORCHESTER, MASSACHUSETTS 02121
Telephone: 445-4381

Henry F. Mulloy, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 1366
White: 523; Black: 579;
Other Minority: 264

A "Magnet" District 9 school with a
Cooperative Industrial Program
Admission based on entrance examination

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Boston Technical High School offers a College Preparatory Program for grades 9-12. The school's objective is to educate students for professional careers in Math, Science Engineering and Industrial Technology

MAGNET PROGRAM: The "Math, Science and Technology" theme at Boston Tech has been its central focus for many years. Students applying to the school and attaining a sufficiently high score on the SSAT entrance exam are embarking on a college-oriented program that emphasizes scientific subjects and mathematics.

Another "magnet" program at Tech is the Cooperative Industrial Printing Program. This program does not require exam scores for admission. (For more information about this program see the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section of this book.)

COURSES: Required courses for the Tech program are 4 years of Math, English, Science and Physical Education. Science courses at the school include Biology, Earth Science, Physics and Chemistry. Among the other course offerings are: Drafting, Industrial Arts, foreign languages, Computer Technology, Engineering, and Typing. Advanced work opportunities are available to 10th, 11th and 12th grade students in Math and Science.

Students in the 9th grade may choose 1 elective, and in the 10th grade they may choose 2. At the 11th & 12th grade levels, students have a wider choice. Among the variety of electives are Art, Sociology, Afro History, American Literature, and Psychology. The Guidance Department and Class Deans help students select electives.

"Career Exploration" for the 9th grade students is the standard program used in other schools in the city. This program explores 3 areas: industry, technology and business. It provides students with an overview of different job areas. The school has a Mass. Occupational Information System (MOIS) computer terminal to provide the students with other data about careers.

"Special Needs": This year, there is a full-time Chapter 766 Coordinator (CETL) at the school. The Coordinator evaluates students' needs and designs programs to meet those needs.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: The school has 4 full-time counselors and a volunteer counselor 2 days a week. Each of the full-time counselors is assigned a class of students and remains the counselor for that class for its 4 years at Tech. Beginning this school year, a two-week (pre-school) orientation is provided at the school for new students.

The State Dept. of Education furnished $48,000 of Chapter 636 funds to support Computer Science and Remedial Reading programs which are provided through their university pairing with Tufts.

Tech's business partner, Boston Edison Company, offers lectures, plant tours and developed a drafting program for students.

The school has a Title I Reading program.

A senior who maintains a high level of performance in his/her courses is permitted to participate in the Flexible Campus Program. They may take college courses or provide tutorial assistance. Tech students have done tutoring at Freedom House and the Trotter School.

Among the community agencies providing service to the school is the Roxbury YMCA which permits Tech Physical Education classes use of its swimming pool.

The school has a cafeteria in which breakfast and a hot lunch is prepared and served daily.

Tech has a full-time nurse on duty.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Among the 340 graduates in 1978, 207 went to college (receiving $203,815.00 worth of scholarship aid), 23 entered military service, and 99 are presently employed.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Boston Technical High School is a science and technology-oriented examination school. Its curriculum speaks for itself. Parents should be aware of the high number of students who go to college after having graduated from Boston Technical High School.

The population at Boston Tech is composed of students from all over the city. The school, because of its pairing with Tufts and Boston Edison, offers a well-rounded academic experience.

The school's greatest assets are the students it has attracted in the past and hope to continue to attract in the future.

FACILITIES

The building was constructed in 1927 and has 5 floors and is very spacious. Among its features are 8 science labs, an Art room, 2 resource rooms, and a Typing room. Shop areas are: 5 Woodworking, 4 Machine, 1 Hot Metal and 1 sheet metal. The school has 2 gyms, but since these are located at the center of the building, the administrator has asked that a gymnasium be built at the far end of the school away from the academic areas. The library was formerly the Roxbury Memorial Branch of the Boston Public Library; it is an especially large and well-stocked school library.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"The school has many good programs for the sincere and intelligent student." * "For a school that is very departmentalized the working relationships are good." * "Most departments offer advanced programs available to any interested student." * "Our Tri-lateral partnership and our Chapter 636 pairing with Tufts University both have had a positive impact on the curriculum." * "Most parental contact revolves around discipline." * "Physical facilities are in need of renovations." * "The faculty, on the whole, is concerned and will do what they can to help each student."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Students are involved in a variety of sports and clubs at Tech. Sports activities include: Football, Basketball, Crew, Baseball and Volleyball. In addition, there is a Camera Club, Music Club and Newspaper Club. Students publish two newspapers, Collage and, Technically Speaking, 5 times a year.

The Student Council consists of 70 members elected from each homeroom. There is a Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC) elected from among the members of the larger Council. The Council meets about once a week.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"Tech gives you a good background in vocational education as well as the academic subjects." * "Repair it and make it the exam school it is supposed to be." * "Teachers really don't encourage females as much as they encourage males in this school." * "Put more subjects or electives to choose from." * "Teachers should be aware of our goals, feelings and problems."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Tech has a Racial/Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) which meets twice a month. Two of the REPC members are also teachers in the school. The Headmaster attends Council meetings. There is also a Home & School Association, which meets on the days parents come to the school after report cards are issued.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"Boston Tech is a good school for my child." * "Science and Math curriculum are strengths at Boston Tech." * "Students shouldn't be suspended because they create offenses in order to get out of school." * "The school needs more discipline procedures." * "I do not think students are receiving the kind of education that they could get at Tech." * "Students are not challenged enough to expand their own ability." * "Funding controls how much the school can do."*

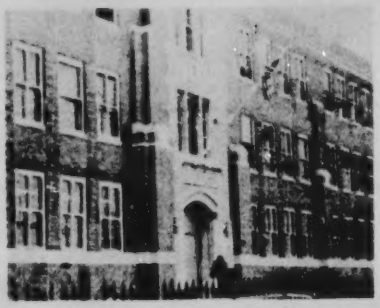
RESEARCHER COMMENT

The atmosphere at the school is conducive to learning. Classes are small enough so that each student can absorb the materials being taught. This also makes for a better rapport between student and teacher.

The school is old & badly in need of repairs. In particular, the auditorium should be renovated, as it is utilized by both the school and by the community after school hours. Parents are working on a proposal to have new gym facilities built at the far end of the school because the present location of the gym (the center of the school) is disruptive to academic studies.

Administration expressed concern about the loss of a number of Tech's applicants to private and parochial schools. This is seen to be the result of the enrollment deadline for these schools falling before the School Department received the SSAT scores needed to determine and inform the applicants of their admission to Tech.

Boston Trade



BOSTON TRADE COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL
550 PARKER STREET
ROXBURY, MASSACHUSETTS 02120
Telephone: 445-6200

James J. Doherty, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 382
White: 102; Black: 256;
Other Minority: 24

A "Magnet" District 9 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Boston Trade Comprehensive High School is a Magnet School whose theme is Vocational Education. Enrollment is open to 11th and 12th grade students on a city-wide basis. A student has a choice of three academic programs: Vocational, College Preparatory and Business. Students may elect to spend up to three periods a day in one of the 12 vocational shops. (Note: under the Flexible Campus program, 194 students from other Boston high schools attend classes in Trade shops.)

MAGNET PROGRAM: The philosophy at Trade is that each student can benefit from learning specialized job skills, regardless of whether the student will work in a particular trade or go into some other occupation. The shops are not new but are adequately equipped to afford the student sufficient "hands-on" experience. The faculty is considered superior by experts in the field of vocational education. The vocational skills taught at Trade are Auto Repair, Basic Electronics, Cabinet Making, Carpentry, Drafting, Electricity, Machines, Painting, Plumbing, Printing, Sheet Metal and Welding.

A serious gap in the curriculum at Trade is the lack of "shop-related" instruction. In a complete vocational education program, students take courses in such subjects as math, science, and drafting, which are geared to the requirements of specific trades. Such courses are not available at Boston Trade.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: There are two Auto Repair shop classes taught in Spanish. Enrollment in the bilingual program at Trade is 33 students.

COURSES: The vocational student at Trade must take 4 years of English, 3 years of Math, 3 years of Social Studies, and 2 years of Science, and are required to spend 3 periods a day in one of the twelve shops. In the Business program, students must also take English, Math, Social Studies, and Science, as well as Bookkeeping, Typing, and Office Practice. The requirements for College Preparatory students are: 3 years of College English, 2 or 3 years of a Foreign Language, 2 years of Science, 3 years of Math and Social Studies. College Preparatory students are urged to spend at least one period a day in one of the shops.

Students may choose electives in the following areas: Health, Drama, Music, Art and Law.

"Career Education": Trade's vocational education program provides students with the trades taught at the school. All the instructors have extensive trade experience in their subject areas. The vocational focus is clearly to prepare a student to earn a living. Students are encouraged to pursue the same trade for 3 years, in order to maximize their employability.

"Special Needs": A full-time Chapter 766 Coordinator is assigned to the school to ensure that appropriate services are provided to the nearly 30% of Trade students identified as having special needs. Many of the students who attend Trade under the Flexible Campus programs are also receiving services under Chapter 766. There are 6 special education classes.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: With Chapter 636 funds from the State Dept. of Education ($35,685), two programs have been developed in conjunction with Trade's university partner, Suffolk University. These programs are the Basic Skill Learning Centers (Reading & Math) and the Basic Skill Tutorial Program (Reading & Math). As part of its cultural pairing, Trade participates in a Theatre Arts Program with the Theatre Company of Boston.

Using an ESAA mini-grant, the Harvard School of Dental Medicine developed a dental hygiene maintenance pamphlet for Trade.

A Title I reading program is available to students residing in eligible areas.

Through the Flexible Campus program, students from throughout the city may elect to attend Trade on a half-day basis, to take instruction in its shops. Some Trade students presently attend Urban Studies, A.C.C., and the pilot ORC through Flexible Campus.

Because of the school's variety of vocational course offerings, it is very important that students have access to vocational counseling, as well as to personal adjustment, and academic counseling. Trade now has one Guidance Counselor to provide these services, who is also responsible for job development, placement, and follow-up of graduates.

The school has a full-time nurse as well as a part-time physician. Preventative medicine and dentistry are taught in the Health courses. This course was developed in conjunction with the Harvard and Northeastern Schools of Public Health and the Harvard Dental School.

Hot breakfast and lunch are served at the school.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Of the 72 seniors who graduated in 1978, 7 went to College, 3 went into business training, 11 entered the military, and 48 went into jobs. Seven of the graduates received scholarships. Of the 48 who went to work 16 were employed in the trade for which they were trained.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

The Boston Trade Comprehensive High School is the only secondary school in the Boston system to give a complete vocational education in just about every phase of vocational training, save for food services, cosmetology, and para-medicine. The core of the teaching program at the school is to be found in the twelve shops.

Students matriculating at Boston Trade receive "hands-on" training second to none in the state in the various vocational fields. Due to policy decisions made outside the school building, we do not have the time in the school day and the school year to give our youngsters the training we feel they should have in the "related" areas. This means the mathematics and the science directly related to the particular field.

What is unique about our school is that we have a college program and a business education program complementing our thorough vocational program. Here our students headed for business and college may actually learn the rudiments of a trade.

FACILITIES

Trade was constructed in 1912. The 3 story building has deteriorated and is not well maintained. The halls need painting. The building's basic lay-out presents many problems to programs. The building has an auditorium, a gym and a cafeteria. It also has 1 science lab, 3 resource rooms, 1 typing room, and a library, with a full-time librarian. The building has not been remodeled to accommodate the handicapped.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"The physical plant is over 50 years old and in need of extensive renovation."* * *"There aren't many materials compared to other schools."* * *"Flexible Campus students increase traffic and disciplinary needs."* * *"Where are the promised support services?"* * *"Open house meetings attracted very few parents."* * *"If the school is supported by the School Committee, School Administration & parents it has the potential of achieving the same results seen at the several Regional Vocational schools in the State."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

There are Boys' Varsity teams in Football, Hockey, Basketball, Cross-country, Indoor Track & Baseball. The Girls' Varsity teams are: Volleyball, Indoor Track & Basketball. Transportation is provided for athletic activities. There is 1 club, the National Honor Society.

Trade has an elected Student Council of 7 members, along with a Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC). The Student Council meets regularly with the Headmaster. It plays an advisory role regarding school policy. In the first 4 months of the school year, Trade has @ 125 student suspensions.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"If you want to learn the teachers in the shops are good."* * *"The college course is lousy."* * *"Shape up the school."* * *"We don't do a lot of work and no homework."* * *"Get teachers who would really want to teach hard."* * *"When is this school going to be made half way decent?"*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Trade has a Parent Council (REPC) which meets monthly. The Headmaster is in frequent contact with the council's Parent Coordinator and attends Council meetings when asked.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"They are always talking about a new school, but this does not help the students now."* * *"More modern machines would help."* * *"I think they should have much more classroom studies and homework."* * *"A college course at Trade is a farce."* * *"The teachers and the Headmaster don't get any help from the higher-ups downtown."* * *"One son graduated and makes very good money."*

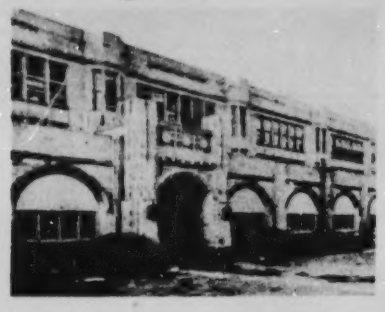
RESEARCHER COMMENT

There are some positive aspects to Trade: the shop teachers are reknowned for excellence; there is a network of alumni who provide jobs to current students; the opportunities to learn manual trades are good; and students are allowed to change programs or shops if they wish. However, there are also many negative aspects: the school is in poor condition; there is inadequate parent participation in policy-making areas; the school offers very limited extra-curricular activities; the business program is inadequately equipped (there is one typing room and no other office equipment or machines). Every shop teacher stated that his ability to teach effectively was hampered by the lack of shop-related instruction.

The mainstreaming of 766 students has been done in a manner that impedes teachers efforts to raise overall skill levels. In addition, there is an unfriendly attitude toward female students.

If adding the single word "Comprehensive" to the name of Boston Trade High School was intended to enhance or enrich the reputation of the school, it has failed. Those responsible for changing the name of the school should have provided the means to accomplish that goal: more teachers in the college course, adequate equipment for the business program, and improving building maintenance.

Brighton High



BRIGHTON HIGH SCHOOL
25 WARREN STREET
BRIGHTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02135
Telephone: 787-6386 or 6828

Francis D. Tracy, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 1187
White: 365; Black: 485;
Other Minority: 337

A District I school with a Magnet Cooperative Industrial Program

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Brighton High School is a comprehensive district high school. The educational program is designed to offer a wide variety of academic and technical opportunities for boys and girls from various backgrounds. This is accomplished by offering to students four different programs: College Preparatory; Business Preparatory; Consumer and Homemaking; and Automotive Vocational.

MAGNET PROGRAM: There is a "magnet" program in Automotive Repair located at Brighton High. Students from any part of Boston may apply for this city-wide Cooperative Industrial Program. (For additional information about this program see the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section of this book.)

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: Brighton High offers bilingual programs in Chinese and in Spanish. English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) is a major component of these programs. Other courses in the student's native language include math, science, health, and social studies.

COURSES: Required subjects for students each year are: Physical Education and English. Social Studies and Earth Science must be taken by all 9th grade students. Reading is required in grades 9 and 10.

A few elective subjects are available to students in the ninth grade. A wider selection is available at higher grades. Students make their choices in the Spring, in consultation with a guidance counselor and with parental approval. Languages taught at Brighton High are French and Spanish.

Advanced work opportunities are provided for selected students at the twelfth grade level in the following subject areas: Modern Language, Science, Math, and English.

"Career Exploration": Career Education at Brighton begins in grade 9, with a program that presents information about different careers related to the course subjects the students are studying.

Business careers are examined through a program that has been developed by the Trilateral Council and is implemented by the Business Department. The Flexible Campus Program also provides students with career information.

"Special Needs": There are 112 students at the school with identified special needs. Some of these students are enrolled in the Automotive program. Two full-time coordinators are assigned to the school to evaluate student's needs and design programs to meet them. The school has seven special education classes.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: For the 1978-79 school year, Brighton High has received $50,000. in Chapter 636 State funding. This money was expended: to prepare students for SAT's and PSAT tests (for college admission); for remedial reading; the Hoffman Reading Lab program; and a library program. Boston University, Brighton's university partner, is involved in these programs.

Brighton High's business partner is Honeywell. Honeywell has helped in the development of Career Days, job placement, and in publishing Castle News, the school newspaper, which is distributed three times per year.

Through the Flexible Campus program, a student may do advanced academic work at Boston State College or at Boston University.

The school utilizes some community agencies in the area. Two that provide services are the Brighton/Allston Mental Health Clinic and the West End House (for swimming and basketball practice).

There are 3 full-time guidance counselors at Brighton. There are also 3 part-time counselors whose combined time at the school is 5 1/2 days a week. They are involved in course selection and career and personal counseling.

A full-time school nurse is at the school and a doctor makes daily calls.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Last year 201 students graduated from Brighton High, with 48 going to college, 6 entering business training programs, 7 going into military service, and 85 becoming employed. Of these graduates, 18 received scholarship assistance.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Innovative classes and specialized programs mean progressive education at Brighton High School. In their freshman year, students follow a basic program of academic subjects with a heavy concentration in Reading Skills. In the sophomore year, specialization begins and students may choose one of the basic programs. In each of these, the core disciplines of English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies continue, and students have the opportunity to explore their interest through elective subjects.

An active Bilingual Program in Asian and Hispanic cultures is currently in progress.

Special Education with Resource Rooms as well as learning and behavior classes are included in the academic environment.

An expanding Flexible Campus Program provides students with opportunities for growth; varied ethnic and cultural clubs encourage social interaction; and a full sports program is available. At Brighton High School, the focus is on the whole student!

FACILITIES

The building has 4 floors and was constructed in 1930. More space is needed for classrooms, and removing lockers to create this classroom space is the only improvement planned for this year. The school has a newly remodelled gym, and a well-stocked library with a full-time librarian and a part-time aide. There is a cafeteria that serves breakfast and a hot lunch. The school also has 3 science labs, 2 art rooms, 3 resource rooms, 3 typing rooms, and 2 business machine rooms.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"Enough programs to reach all students." * "The school offers an extremely broad range of athletics and other extra-curricular activities." * "The facilities are rapidly becoming overcrowded." * "On the whole, the administration backs up the teachers." * "The school has ample supplies." * "There is harmony and good will among the various student groups."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The Student Council consists of 42 elected members. There is a Student Faculty Coordinator who works with the Council. Varsity sports offered at Brighton High are: Football, Soccer, Swimming, Badminton, Bowling, Basketball, Baseball, Hockey, Softball, Track, and Tennis. The clubs available are: Celtic Club, Chess Club, Ethnic Clubs, Math Club and Team, Future Medical Careers, Pep Club, National Honor Society, Gothic Staff and Castle News. Transportation is provided for some activities.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"Everyone gets along." * "I think that Brighton High is a really good school." * "Because of neglect due to guidance many students are misinformed, have missed many of their deadlines and don't have any idea of financial aid." * "Wide range of courses." * "Juniors and seniors should have appointments with the guidance counselors." * "Some teachers strive to help."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

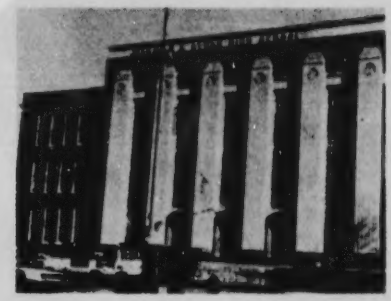
There is a Racial/Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) at Brighton High which meets monthly. Brighton High also has a Home and School Association which runs the school's open-house. The Headmaster has attended meetings of both the REPC and the Home and School Association.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"Students don't get enough homework." * "The program seems alright." * "I feel as if I have no input into the school." * "Not enough stress on academic subjects." * "Parents are not very involved in what goes on." * "The program is fairly good." * "They should keep the kids in school." * "Not enough interest on the part of teachers."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

The extensive course offerings listed in the curriculum guide were not evident at Brighton High. Some teachers expressed concern that there are few College Prep courses and no advanced science courses. The student body freely roam the halls, but discipline doesn't appear to be a major problem. Building is rather dull and cheerless. There seems to be little rapport between students and faculty.

Jeremiah E. Burke



JEREMIAH E. BURKE HIGH SCHOOL
60 WASHINGTON STREET
DORCHESTER, MASSACHUSETTS 02121
Telephone: 427-0240

Douglas Foster, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 900
White: 123; Black: 708;
Other Minority: 69

A District 5 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The Jeremiah E. Burke High School is a comprehensive high school which has as its goal that its students master the essential skills necessary to attain success in course offerings, post-secondary education and in career objectives. The core academic programs at the school are College Preparatory and Business Preparatory. Within the College program, there is an Art Major Specialization available to students. As part of the Business program, a student may specialize in Merchandising, Communication Arts, Culinary Arts or specific office skills.

COURSES: The College program seeks to prepare students to continue their education beyond high school. Standard subject requirements are Physical Education, foreign language (French or Spanish), Math, Science, and English. A student in this program may choose to concentrate in Liberal Arts, with emphasis on foreign language, or in technical studies, emphasizing Math and Science.

The Business Education program is designed to prepare students to enter various branches of the business world. A student may choose to concentrate in the following areas: Shorthand, Typing, Accounting, Office Practice, or Marketing Distribution.

Beginning in grade 10, students may choose elective courses. Some of the electives available are Art, Journalism, Drama, Music, Ethnic Studies, Parenting, Career Planning and Computer Programming.

"Career Exploration" is part of the program of 9th grade students. Students also have access to a Mass. Occupational Information System (MOIS) computer terminal, a source of specific facts about different occupations that may be of interest to students.

"Special Needs": The school provides services to 170 students with identified special needs. There are 6 special education classes at the school. The school has a full-time coordinator responsible for services to these students.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: The Burke has two (2) university partners. One is Boston State College, which developed the after-school reading programs for teachers and students, and also helped develop a math curriculum. The other univeristy partner is Mass. College of Art, the developer of the Burke's Communication Arts program.

The Next Move Theatre, the cultural institution paired with the school, provides an Improvisational Theatre program.

Job-hunting techniques, internships, tutors, Career Day, and guest lectures are provided by New England Life, the school's business partner.

The school received $42,784. of Chapter 636 funds from the State Dept. of Education to support these pairings, as well as to provide 2 additional theater-related programs and an aide for the library.

Flexible Campus offers students a wide range of education, including college and mini-courses, internships, and volunteer experience.

The school has a Title I Reading program and a Reading Lab. It also has a Remedial English and Math program required of all students in the 9th & 10th grades.

With $5,000 of funding from ESAA, the school has developed other programs including a mural construction project, a World Travel/Geography program and an incentive awards program.

The Burke has 2 full-time guidance counselors, and another for 2 days a week. It has a full-time nurse and a doctor visits daily. A hot breakfast and hot lunch are served at the school.

The Burke utilizes the services of the following community agencies: Dorchester Mental Health; Youth Activities Commission; the Adolescent Unit-Boston City Hospital; Dorchester House; Freedom House; Roxbury Multi-Service Center; Roxbury Boys Club; and Massachusetts Committee on Children and Youth.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: From among 153 students who graduated in 1978, 66 went to college, 2 entered technical school, 7 entered business training programs, 14 joined a military service, and 18 are presently employed.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

The Jeremiah E. Burke High School is a co-educational, comprehensive high school dedicated to insuring that its students attain a mastery of the essential competencies. The school is dedicated to a traditional approach to education. To this end:

1) All grade 9 students are required to take math and reading courses. These include 5 periods of each of the following: Algebra or Business Math, Developmental Math, Developmental Reading, English, and Career Exploratory.

2) Our Communication Arts Program (television, printing and photography) features the most modern equipment in the city.

3) Required basic College and Business courses are followed for four years.

4) A Business Exploratory course is offered to all ninth grade students.

FACILITIES

The building was constructed in 1934 and has 4 floors. A television studio and photography room are the school's newest facilities. The building has 2 art rooms, 6 science labs, 6 resource rooms, 3 typing rooms, and 3 business machine rooms. There is a library, with a full-time librarian. The school has an auditorium, a cafeteria and a gym, and plans have been made to have them modernized. A repair request has also been made to fix the roof.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"Physical facilities are being updated, but are far from sufficient." * "New England Life is generous with time, money, facilities and staff." * "Certain parents are very helpful, but they are few." * "Basically, discipline is haphazard and inconsistent." * "Faculty morale is quite low." * "The visual arts program is excellent."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The school offers varsity sports to boys and girls. Boys' sports include: Football, Soccer, Basketball, Hockey, Track, Swimming, and Baseball. Girl's sports include: Volleyball, Basketball, Track, Bowling, Badminton, and Softball. Gymnastics is offered as an intramural sport.

Club activities are offered to students depending on their grade. They are: Yearbook, International Cultures, Backgammon Club, Ethnic Studies, Senior Activities, History Club, Drama, and Junior Achievement. Students have an opportunity to participate in the Theatre Arts Program, Chorus, and Band. Transportation is provided for after-school activities.

The Burke has a Student Council with 2 representatives from each homeroom. There are between 30 and 40 students involved. The Headmaster meets with the Council when requested.

Discipline procedures at the school are based on the School Department's (1970) Code of Discipline. (When asked about the school's suspension process and statistics the administration responded that these were "classified information".)

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"I would not recommend this school." * "Most of the teachers are nice." * "They should get better machines." * "The school don't really got anything to talk about." * "The school is good."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The Parent Council (REPC) meets monthly. The administrator attends its meetings. The school also has a Home and School Association.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"More guidance is needed." * "Programs should be changed to meet the needs of the student, not the staff." * "Too much advanced Bookkeeping! General Math courses would be more suitable." * "My son is not college-bound, he needs more Math for Carpentry, etc."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

On arriving at the J. E. Burke High School, one is impressed at the size and beauty of the building, both inside and out. The lobby has many art objects which have been contributed by alumni.

At present the building does not have a full staff of custodians and it is not being maintained properly.

The students encountered in the corridors were courteous and orderly.

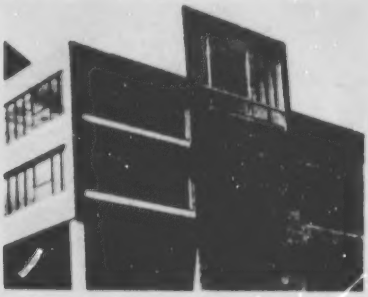
In the auditorium, the student theatre group (with the Next Move cultural pairing) was rehearsing. This highly diverse group of students was full of excitement in what they were sharing. Perhaps the common interest shown in extra-curricular activities may be the method to draw more students to the school and encourage those attending to remain and complete their high school education.

Charlestown High

CHARLESTOWN HIGH SCHOOL
50 MEDFORD STREET
CHARLESTOWN, MASSACHUSETTS 02129
Telephone: 242-1450

Robert F. Murphy, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 422
White: 208; Black: 159;
Other Minority: 55

A District 7 school with a Magnet Cooperative Industrial Program



EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Charlestown High is a comprehensive four-year district high school serving many diverse areas including, in addition to Charlestown itself, Roxbury, the South End and the Back Bay. The educational program includes General Education, College Preparatory, Business Education, Distributive Education, and the Cooperative Electrical Program.

MAGNET PROGRAM: The "magnet" Cooperative Electrical Program housed at Charlestown High School, combines vocational education with supervised work experience. This program is open to students from any area of Boston. (For additional information about this program see the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section of this book.)

COURSES: The courses that comprise the General Education program are college preparatory Math, Science, Social Science and English, along with electives in business-related subjects. This program accommodates students who have not yet defined their career goals. Courses offered in the College Preparatory program are English, Mathematics (Algebra I, Plane Geometry, Algebra II, & Trigonometry), Science (Earth Science, Biology, Chemistry), Social Studies (World History, U.S. History, Ancient History, and History of the 20th Century), and foreign languages (French & Spanish). The Business Education program includes English, Business Math, Social Studies, Earth Science and Basic Science, in addition to General Business, Economics, Typing, Shorthand, Bookkeeping, Office Practice, and Business Law.

The Distributive Education program is open to seniors who intend to work in Marketing or Sales. Students attend classes for the first four periods and then are released for work assignments for the remainder of the day. However, there has been some difficulty in developing enough work sites.

Reading is offered as an elective at all grade levels, as are Home Economics & Art. Journalism is an elective open to 11th and 12th grade students.

"Career Exploration": There is a Career Exploratory program for 9th grade students, although part of this program has not been implemented as yet since the industrial arts shops have not been fully equipped. Charlestown High students have access to the Career Development Center, a career education program run by the Kennedy Center, a local agency. This program provides career counseling, career exploration activities, and guest lecturers from a variety of business and community organizations.

"Special Needs": There are 3 special education classes at Charlestown High. The school has a full-time coordinator (CETL) for special needs (Chapter 766) programs.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: For the school year 1978-79, Charlestown High received $85,000 in Chapter 636 State funding. Three programs have been developed in conjunction with the school's university partner, Bunker Hill Community College, utilizing these funds. These are The Film Program, The Matinee Program, & the Learning Center. The Learning Center is staffed on a full-time basis and offers assistance to students who require work on developing basic skills or who wish to supplement their regular course work. Books, slides, films, tapes, and videotapes are used in this program.

The following activities have been developed and implemented with the assistance of Liberty Mutual Insurance Company, Charlestown High's business partner: CHIP (Charlestown High In Print), the school newspaper; a Photography course; a Commercial Art course; the yearbook; and a Job Interviewing Techniques course.

The school has a Title I Reading program.

Through the Flexible Campus program, a student may take college courses; attend Occupational Resource Center(ORC), Another Course to College (ACC), or Educational Collaborative (EDCO) programs; or participate in an internship program.

Among agencies which provide services to the school are The Kennedy Center and the Bunker Hill Health Center.

Guidance services at Charlestown High are provided by one full-time and one half-time guidance counselors. In addition to counseling, the Guidance Department is also responsible for placing Distributive Education students in jobs. Guidance materials are available in the library as well as in the Guidance Office.

A nurse is on duty full-time and a doctor makes daily visits to the school. The Bunker Hill Health Center is available to provide emergency services.

Hot lunches are served at the school.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 83 students graduated from Charlestown High. Of these 29 went to college, 2 entered technical school, 8 entered business training programs and 40 (estimate) obtained employment. Among those pursuing further study, 26 received scholarships.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Charlestown High School is a comprehensive high school in a new building catering to a new population and striving for a new identity. In many ways we are a traditional school adjusting to new surroundings and willing to experiment with new programs. Our course offerings are standard with excellent physical education facilities and varied flexible campus options.

FACILITIES

The new Charlestown High School opened in the fall of 1978. The five story building contains large classrooms, an auditorium, a cafeteria, a library (with a full-time librarian), 2 science laboratories, an Art room, 2 resource rooms, 2 Typing rooms, 2 business machine rooms, 3 Electrical shops and a Woodworking shop. The Physical Education complex across the street houses a swimming pool and a gym. The building is divided into 3 "houses", each with its own housemaster and group of teachers. Every student is assigned to one of these houses and spends most of their school day in that house area.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"The new Charlestown High School is a beautiful building, however, it should be more fully utilized."* * *"A nice building does not a decent education make."* * *"Faculty morale is low."* * *"We only see parents when their sons and daughters are in trouble."* * *"More parents should become involved."* * *"Innovative programs are being planned."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The Student Council at Charlestown consists of 25 elected members. There is also a Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC) elected from among these members. Varsity sports offered are: Basketball, Baseball, Track, Swimming, Football, Softball, Hockey and Crew. There are also intramural sports available: Volleyball, Gym Hockey, Flag Football, Basketball and Soccer. The clubs and organizations at the school are CHIP (the school newspaper) the National Honor Society and Ironsides (the yearbook). Transportation is provided for some after-school activities.

Discipline procedures at Charlestown High are based on the 1970 School Dept. "Code of Discipline". Student infractions are reported to the Assistant Headmaster, who handles most of the disciplinary matters. As of early January, 120 students have been suspended this school year.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The Electrical Program helps you learn a trade when you graduate."* * *"Not enough students."* * *"You learn a lot."* * *"Good teachers."* * *"Get more students to learn electricity."* * *"We have good facilities but not enough students."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is a Parent Council which meets once a month. The Headmaster is in frequent contact with it. There is also a Home & School Association, but it is not active.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"If more parents were involved it would help the kids."* * *"I don't think they are giving the children enough work."* * *"There is a shortage of college-bound courses."* * *"Gorgeous facilities."* * *"It hurts to have my children where I am afraid to go."* * *"Need more black teachers."* * *"They should try to work with the kids before suspension."* * *"Parents, teachers, students and administration plan to study alternatives to the high suspension rates."* * *"I would like to see more vocational education."* * *"The school is starting to respond to building a relationship with parents."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

The new, spacious Charlestown High School can comfortably accommodate 800 students, yet the current enrollment is 422. Proposed innovative magnet programs were cancelled this year because of the low enrollment.

Black parent participation in the REPC should be sought in a more determined fashion.

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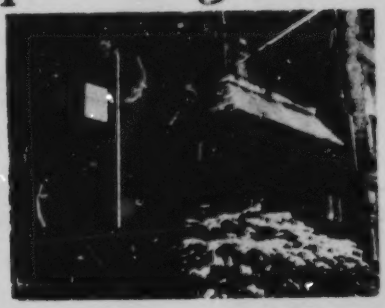
Copley Square High



COPLEY SQUARE HIGH SCHOOL
150 NEWBURY STREET
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02116
Telephone: 267-9805

Theresa Hamrock, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 525
White: 223; Black: 226;
Other Minority: 66

A "Magnet" District 9 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Copley Square High School offers a comprehensive four-year high school program. For the most part, the program is "ungraded", allowing individual students to take courses according to their levels of ability and interest rather than grade-level.

MAGNET THEME: Magnet themes at the school are Communication Arts and the Extern Program. There is a strong emphasis on Communication Arts; Theater Arts; Speech and Oral Interpretation; Mass Communication (TV, Radio, Journalism); and Graphic Arts. Students at all grade levels can participate in this program.

The Extern Program is designed to make maximum use of resources outside of the school building. Direct experiences with the cultural, business and governmental institutions are provided to the students, rather than classroom simulations of these experiences. Among the settings available under this program are: the Shawmut Bank Tri-lateral Program; the YWCA Vocational/Technical Exploratory Program; the YMCA Ponkapoag Physical Education Center; the Massachusetts Horticultural Program; and individual placements at Government, Business, Technical and University sites.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: There is a small bilingual program at Copley. The courses given are for students whose native language is Spanish. These courses are: English-as-a-Second-Language (basic and advanced), Spanish (basic & intermediate) and Math.

COURSES: Copley Square students are expected to master traditional high school skills. Various teaching approaches are used to help students develop competence in: Art, English, foreign language, Mathematics, Physical Education, Science and Social Studies. Reading instruction is given to students in the Reading Lab on a level appropriate to individual needs. The Math Program encompasses courses from Algebra to Trigonometry; from Consumer Math to Computer Programming. There is a Math Lab which provides individualized math programs for students.

The success of the Extern Program depends upon strong interaction between required academic subjects and the "Extern" field experiences. This interaction is closely supervised by the staff.

"Career Exploration": Career Education for the students is provided through the Extern Program. The Occupational Resource Center and Trade School provide instruction in Health Services and in the trades. Business education is provided through an in-house program and several placements outside the building. The Vocational Exploratory Program at the YWCA teaches students about Upholstery, Carpentry, Automobile Repairs and Home Construction.

The Extern Program is generally not a work-study program; it emphasizes experiences rather than job placements. However, in the senior year, with the Headmaster's approval, a student may be employed at an extern site.

"Special Needs": There are 10 classes given for the 63 students at Copley with identified special needs. These students can take a College or a Business Course, or a combination of both. There is a special needs coordinator (CETL) at Copley 2 days a week.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: Copley High School programs are supported in part by $126,750.00 of Chapter 636 funding.

The school is paired with Emerson College and Suffolk University. Through this collaboration Emerson College has provided a Communication Arts Program, with components in Theatre Arts, Media, Speech, the Humanities, Reading and Career Education relating to the field of communication. The partnership with Suffolk University has resulted in the Math Lab, providing supplementary Math instruction to students on levels appropriate to individual needs. A cultural collaboration has been developed with the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, which provides an inter-disciplinary course in Biology and Geography, and a "Light Garden".

The Shawmut Bank of Boston is the business partner of Copley. Shawmut has provided program and space support. In addition, Shawmut has supported other programs such as: Job Hunting Workshop; Bilingual Career Day; Art Exhibit; Extern placements at the Bank; Sports Award Night; and a Career Seminar on Banking.

There is a Title I program in Language Arts and Reading, and another reading program has been funded through an ESAA "mini-grant".

Among community agencies providing service to Copley are: YWCA: YMCA: Lyric Stage-Theatre; The Copley Society (Fine Arts); The Boston Public Library; Trinity Church; Old South Church; the Next Move Theatre; & WBZ-FM: WILD: & WUMB (communications).

The Guidance Department provides assistance in Career Counseling, Course selections, orientation for new students, personal counseling and job placement.

The school has a full-time nurse and a doctor visits the school daily. The school also makes referrals for students to agencies providing additional services.

When report cards come out, an open house is arranged for the parents so they can consult with teachers. If these arrangements aren't convenient for the parents, special conferences can be set up.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Copley graduated 117 students in 1978. Of these 78 went to college, 2 went to technical schools, 14 went into military service, and 23 went into employment. At least 24 graduates received scholarships for further study.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

"Copley Square High School offers a comprehensive high school program with major themes in Communication Arts and in its Extern Program. The Communication Arts program is supported by a collaborative with Emerson College, which specializes in media, communications, and theatre arts.

The Extern Program provides for field experiences developed out of classroom course work. Students explore a wide range of cultural, business and government experiences. They may also attend Vocational/Technical studies or enroll in college courses in local universities.

The school occupies a landmark architectural building adjacent to the Old South Church. The facility is limited in size. External campus sites provide for auditorium, gymnasium, library, voc/tech shops, special science laboratories, and theatre workshop.

FACILITIES

Copley High School can accommodate 350 students at a time but, due to its central city location, it can accomodate the 550 student enrollment by making use of neighboring resources. The building was constructed in 1860. It has 2 science labs, 2 art rooms, 1 resource room, and 2 typing rooms. The cafeteria serves breakfast and lunch.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"Teachers and administrators know and work with students individually."* * *"Students are encouraged to take full responsibility for their actions."* * *"The rules are applied consistently and evenly."* * *"It is easy for us to take advantage of any programs that are offered by nearby colleges and businesses."* * *"Additional space outside the building would be most helpful."* * *"The faculty is very supportive."* * *"There are many groups of parents playing useful roles in the school."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

At Copley, the following sports are available to students: Soccer, Volleyball, Hockey, Basketball, Bowlind, Baseball, Softball, Tennis, and Track. Various activities which are ordinarily considered "extra-curricular" are instead incorporated into the regular curriculum. At Copley for example, Theatre, Forensic Arts, Photography and Journalism. There is a school newspaper published 4 times a year. Transportation is provided for after-school activities.

The Student Council at Copley has 28 members, elected from their homerooms. The Headmaster attends its meetings upon request and sometimes asks that items be put on the agenda. There is also a Racial-Ethnic Student Council elected from among the members of the full council.

The discipline procedures employed at Copley are a detention (for offenses such as tardiness or truancy); administration conferences with students or parents (for different degrees of disruptive behavior); consultations with staff, administration, parents and outside agencies (for very serious cases). As of the beginning of 1978 there had been only one suspension at Copley.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The students have a strong influence in designing their own curricula."* * *"Too much student freedom."* * *"The Guidance Counselor really cares about you."* * *"I suggest getting one guidance counselor for each grade."* * *"The Extern Program is excellent."* * *"Not enough school spirit."* * *"The teachers and the students get along well."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is a Parent Council (REPC) which meets once a month. The Headmaster attends all meetings when invited.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"Teachers care about the students and are very interested in the student's progress."* * *"I was notified immediately when my daughter was missing school."* * *"I liked the thought of my son attending a small school because it offered more than anonymity."* * *"I think the building could be improved."* * *"Great variety of programs to suit every child."* * *"I do not feel that the college atmosphere at this school is for all students."* * *"I like the Math program."* * *"All kinds of notices are sent home asking for parent participation."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

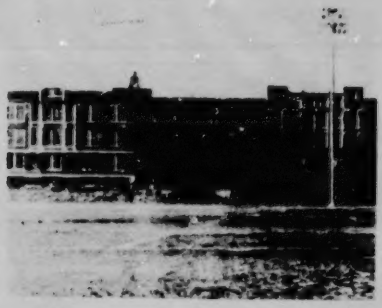
Copley Square High School's unique downtown campus is ideal. Upon visiting the school, the wealth of academic, cultural and vocational opportunities it had to offer was impressive. The atmosphere at the school was quiet and very conducive to learning. The condition of the building itself is an embarassment to a school of such high accreditation.

Dorchester High

DORCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL
9 PEACEVALE ROAD
DORCHESTER, MASSACHUSETTS 02124
Telephone: 436-2065

Edward C. Lambert, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 959
White: 187; Black: 716;
Other Minority: 56

A District 5 school with a Magnet Cooperative Industrial Program



EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Dorchester High is a comprehensive high school with numerous course offerings in both the College and Business Preparatory programs. The emphasis is on the "basics", Reading, Writing, and Computing. (An example of this emphasis is that all 9th grade students take 8 periods of English per week, and 10th graders take 7 periods, regardless of their individual programs.)

MAGNET PROGRAM: Dorchester High offers three (3) Cooperative Industrial Programs: Architectural Woodworking, Furniture Finishing, and Upholstery. (For more information about these programs, see the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section of this book.)

COURSES: Course offerings at Dorchester are comprehensive and programs for both Business and College-bound students offer a range of course options. The core subject areas in the curriculum are English, Social Studies, Math, Science, and Physical Education. Science courses available include Chemistry, Biology, and Physics. The foreign languages taught are French and Spanish.

Other course offerings include: Home Economics, Psychology, Computer Programming, Trigonometry, Algebra, Geometry, Graphic Arts, Music Theory, Photography, Ceramics, Ethnic Studies, First Aid, Reading, Art, Clothing, Foods, and Piano. Among the business-related course offerings are General Business, Business Math, Bookkeeping, Typing, Record Keeping, Office Practice, Merchandising, and Business Law. Elective courses are open to students at the 10th grade level.

"Career Exploration": There is a Career Exploratory program for 9th grade students. The school has a M.O.I.S. (Mass. Occupational Information System) computer terminal, which serves as a source of specific information about careers. The Home Economics, Business and shop programs also provide information to students about related careers.

"Special Needs": Dorchester High has about 100 students who have been identified as having special needs. To meet the requirements of some of these students, there are 8 classrooms for "substantially separate" students and there are 4 resource rooms.

There is a special program for substantially separate students at the school. This program prepares the students for jobs in restaurants, offices, and merchandising. The school has a full-time coordinator for special needs students.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: The school's university pairing is with Boston State College which has developed a Dorchester High Building Plan and a new mathematics curriculum, and which supervises Reading programs.

New England Telephone Company is the business paired with Dorchester High. This pairing has resulted in Career Days, a Conference Leadership course for faculty & students, Career Awareness Seminars, Young Audience performances, visits to N. E. Telephone facilities, editorial assistance for the school newspaper, and guest speakers.

The State Dept. of Education provided Chapter 636 funds to develop a new Algebra-Geometry curriculum this year.

The Flexible Campus program includes placements at the Occupational Resource Center (ORC), Another Course to College (ACC), U.Mass-Boston, Educational Collaborative (EDCO) programs, Boston State College, Museum School, and Project Close-up.

The school has 2 full-time guidance counselors, and another who is there 3 days a week.

Title I programs in Reading & Writing are available and remedial programs are provided through the Reading Laboratory & Reading Clinic.

Dorchester High has a full-time nurse and a doctor visits daily. Breakfast and lunch are available to students.

Some community agencies providing services to the school are Dorchester Mental Health Center, Neponset Health Center, Youth Activities Commission and Project Y.E.S. (a student employment program).

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 187 students graduated Dorchester High. Of these, 54 went to college (25 received scholarships), 1 entered technical school, 10 went into business training, 11 entered military service and 66 are presently employed.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Dorchester High School is housed in a large old fashioned, red brick building whose appearance mirrors its function, traditional education. It is located in a residential area away from the distractions of traffic and industry and is surrounded by open, grassy fields and a large playground.

Dorchester High School began a "return to basics" in 1973 before that movement became a fetish, so that its curriculum leans heavily toward language arts, reading, writing, and computing and sacrifices many of the exotic and enticing electives found elsewhere. Nevertheless, this school offers a wide range of choices in three major fields: a complete college preparatory course, a business education course, and a cooperative industrial course.

FACILITIES

Dorchester High was constructed in 1925. Among the features contained in this 3 story building are 4 science labs, 2 Art rooms, a language lab, 3 Typing rooms, & 2 business machine rooms. There are 5 shop rooms: 3 Woodworking, 1 Upholstery, and 1 Wood Finishing. The school has a library, with a full-time librarian. There are also 2 gymnasiums, a cafeteria, and a large assembly hall. Planned improvements are directed at new windows, the public address system and the heating system.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"The building needs interior remodeling and better maintenance." • "Some rooms need adequate window & shades. We need 24 hour electricity to run the aquarium." • "Individual teachers are told they must take care of most discipline problems themselves." •*

*"The staff & materials we have in the science program are excellent." * "The Faculty Senate has recommended that Dorchester High School establish a theme of 'Community Service'." * "This school offers a generally quiet, safe environment and a qualified, willing faculty."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

There is a Student Council at Dorchester High. It is elected by the students and has 72 members. A Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC) is elected from among this group. A school newspaper is published monthly.

Discipline procedures at the school involve teachers, heads of departments & the Assistant Headmaster. As of early January, there had been 20 suspensions of students during this school year.

The school has a Pep Club, a Ski Club, and a Chess Club.

Varsity sports at Dorchester High are: Basketball (both boys' & girls'), Soccer, Football, Hockey, Baseball, Softball, Badminton, Volleyball, Tennis, and Track (for boys' & girls'). Intramural sports offered are Basketball and Bowling.

Transportation is provided for after-school activities.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The school has an excellent Math Dept. & a pretty good lunch." * "Sports is the biggest strength of this school." * "If you really want to learn things of importance, don't go to my school. I don't blame all the fault on the school alone, it is also the whole Boston School System's fault." * "We have good sportsmanship." * "One of the weaknesses of the school is that white students don't participate enough in the school. Maybe it's because the school is majority black and they feel uncomfortable." * "The students should be taught more advanced work than what they are being taught." * "There are a lot of nice people at Dorchester High School."*

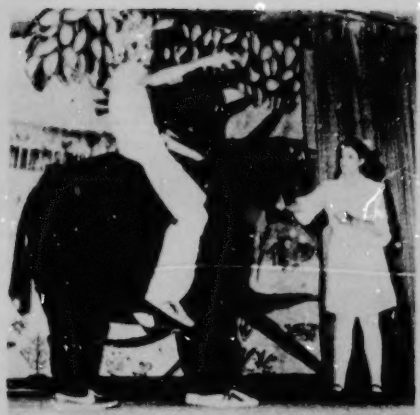
PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Dorchester High has a Parent Council (REPC) which meets monthly & is in regular communication with the Headmaster. He occasionally attends meetings, but usually is in contact with members by phone. An open house for parents is held each time report cards are issued.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"I found the teachers very dedicated." * "The school has a good reputation in the neighborhood." * "The teachers are always trying to improve the curriculum." * "The class size should, in most cases, be smaller." * "The school has a very good reading program." * "The school needs better office equipment, films & special events for the students." * "Parents are invited to come & see the teachers and discuss problems."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

Dorchester High is a well-managed school with good programs. This is reflected in its very low suspension rate. The school seemed to generate an atmosphere of excitement. The Headmaster has a long history with this school, which shows in his real understanding of his students. The faculty also seemed very interested in and supportive of their students.



↑ COPLEY SQUARE HIGH ← JEREMIAH E. BURKE HIGH → ROXBURY HIGH ↑

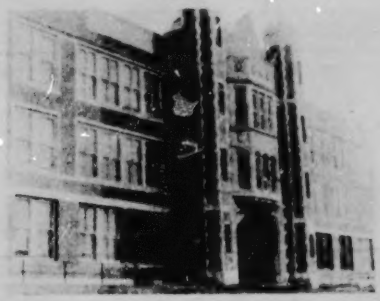
COPLEY SQUARE HIGH

ROXBURY HIGH

ENGLISH HIGH

COPLEY SQUARE HIGH

East Boston High



EAST BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL
86 WHITE STREET
EAST BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02128
Telephone: 567-2140

Carmen J. Scarpa, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 1086
White: 899; Black: 157;
Other Minority: 30

A District 8 school with a Magnet Cooperative Industrial Program and a Magnet Business Education Program

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

East Boston High is a four-year comprehensive high school serving the East Boston community. The philosophy at East Boston High is to seek to provide a foundation for each student's continuous growth and enrichment by developing the student's knowledge, skills and the emotional and moral strengths. Four major programs are offered: College Preparatory, Business Education, Business Magnet, and Magnet Machine Shop.

MAGNET PROGRAMS: Magnet offerings include specialized business training not available at other high schools in the school system, and a Cooperative Machine Shop program. These programs are open to students from all areas of Boston. (For additional information, consult the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section of this book.)

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: There are 101 students enrolled in the Italian Bilingual Program at the school. These students are taking College Preparatory courses.

COURSES: The College Prep course is designed for students who plan to continue their education beyond high school. Students in this program are expected to spend 2-3 hours in home study each night. Required courses include Physical Education, English, foreign language, History, Science and Math. Science courses at East Boston are Biology and Chemistry. Languages taught are French, Italian and Spanish. The Business Education course is designed to accommodate the student who either hopes to obtain immediate employment upon graduation in the clerical area or plans to attend business school. A student who plans to pursue additional business training is counseled to enroll in the College Business program. Those enrolled in this program take College Prep academic courses along with a series of business subjects. Required courses are Physical Education, English, Science, Math, Social Studies, Bookkeeping, Typing, Shorthand, and Office Practice. In the spring, students choose their electives for the following school year. Electives are offered as semester courses; these include Art, Print Making, Mechanical Drawing, Journalism, Child Care, Oceanography, Computer Math, Music, History of Boston, Consumer Education, Women in Literature, Navigation, Reprographics, and College Board Preparation.

Advanced work is offered to 12th grade students in the Business and College programs.

"Career Exploration": The Career Exploratory program is mandatory for all 9th grade students and includes instruction in business, home economics and industrial arts. A Mass. Occupational Information System (MOIS) computer terminal is available through the Guidance Office for use by students seeking specific career information.

"Special Needs": There are 124 students at East Boston High with identified special needs. Nearly all of these students are in the Business Prep program. The school has a full-time coordinator responsible for special needs services. There are 7 special education classes.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: This year East Boston High received $52,776 from the State Dept. of Education through Chapter 636. This grant provided for the continued operation of the school's Reading Center. The school has a univeristy pairing with Salem State College which helped develop the Magnet Business program, and it has a business pairing with the Mass. Port Authority, which established Work-Study and Internship programs. Over 200 students participate in Flexible Campus activities. Opportunities available include: Work-Study, A.C.C., Massport Internship, O.R.C., Volunteer Tutoring, Metro-Pathways, Cultural Heritage, Global Classroom, Philips-Andover Academy, Thompson's Island, and Independent Study.

East Boston High School received $130,000 in federal funds from ESAA. Most of this was used to expand the Business Magnet Program. An Instructional Support Team helped develop the 9th grade clusters at East Boston High through this same funding.

The school utilizes the services of several community agencies, including YAC (Youth Activities), Social Square Center, Meridian House and the Area Planning Action Council (APAC).

There are three full-time guidance counselors at the school, and another who is there 2 days a week. The counselors orient students to the use of the MOIS, assist students in the selection of courses, orient new students to the school, provide personal counseling, and assist the Business students in securing employment.

The school's Health Suite is staffed by a full-time nurse.

Hot and cold lunches are served in the school cafeteria.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 250 students graduated from East Boston High: 64 went to college (52 received scholarships for further study), 21 entered technical schools, 21 entered business traning programs, 4 went into military service and 101 are presently employed.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

I believe "Eastie" to be one of the finest high schools in this or any other city. We are proud of our students and their parents, our faculty (both academic and athletic), and our community.

We are proud of the quality of education our school provides:

(a) Comprehensive program for district students
(b) Business Magnet for city-wide students
(c) Cooperative program for city-wide students
(d) Italian Bilingual for city-wide students

We are dedicated to the pursuit of excellence. Our pursuit of excellence will allow us to graduate students who are strong intellectually, morally, and physically. To that end, the pursuit of excellence is emphasized in the classroom, on the athletic field, and in the social integration of our students as part of the many extra-curricular activities our school offers.

If you desire to learn and grow, we welcome you to East Boston High School where you will have every opportunity to do so.

FACILITIES

East Boston High was constructed in 1924. The structure has 3 floors and a lower level. Among the building's features are 5 science labs, 1 Art room, 6 resource rooms, 5 typing rooms, and 3 business machine rooms. The shop facilities of the school include: 1 Welding, 2 Woodworking, 1 Power Technology, and 2 Machine shops. There is an auditorium, a gymnasium and a library (with a full-time librarian). This year's improvements were new lavatory facilities, a new heating system and new plumbing. Other desired changes are the enlargement of the cafeteria and improvement of the gym facilities.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"The Business Magnet Program offers many courses of study not offered in other Boston high schools."* * *"Physical facilities are inadequate."* * *"Students are put into classes which they have no desire to be in."* * *"I have been able to use and acquire materials here that have not been available in other schools."* * *"The administration encourages and stresses parent-teacher communication."* * *"The school offers a general atmosphere geared toward educating."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Varsity sports at East Boston are: Football, Track (Boys' & Girls'), Hockey, Basketball (Boys' & Girls'), Swimming (Boys' & Girls'), Baseball, Tennis, Girls' Softball, Bowling, Badminton, and Volleyball. Clubs available include: Key Club, Roots, Italian Club, Chess Club, Varsity Club, and the Pep Club. Transportation is provided for after-school activities.

The disciplinary procedures in effect at the school were designed by a committee of teachers, students, and parents, and they are reviewed annually. As of mid-January, 4 students have been suspended from school during this school year.

The Student Council is comprised of 45 students. Membership is open to all interested students. There is also a Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC).

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The school is very good, full of discipline."* * *"I would change this school by slowing down the homework."* * *"Teachers here are very firm."* * *"You learn a lot."* * *"I used to hate school, maybe because of the schools I went to. Coming to East Boston, I look forward to going."* * *"I think that it is not fair to the students who live out of East Boston to not allow them to take the college course."* * *"The teachers are nice."* * *"The students in our school have a lot of pride."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The school's Parent Council (REPC) meets monthly. Through the Parent Coordinator, the Council maintains communication with the Headmaster. The school also has a Home & School Association, but it is not active at this time.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"I feel my child is getting a good education at East Boston High."* * *"Parents are not involved enough."* * *"Teachers seem interested in the children."* * *"If my child is absent or doing poorly in the school they will call me."* * *"I would like to see more black students recruited."* * *"The school is and has been very responsive to me."* * *"The Business program is very strong."* * *"My role as a parent is to help see that my child receives a good education and that my child's school has adequate facilities."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

The Headmaster is congenial and willing to cooperate with parents. The parents' overall view of the school is good but they feel additional parental involvement is needed. The faculty, students, and Headmaster seem to respect one another and to maintain effective communication.

English High

ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL
77 AVENUE LOUIS PASTEUR
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02115
Telephone: 738-6300

William Lawrence, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 2209
White: 865; Black: 1046
Other Minority: 298

A "Magnet" District 9 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The English High School educational program is based upon a College Curriculum and a Business Curriculum. In addition, the school has a Careers Curriculum, which is linked with the Flexible Campus Program.

MAGNET PROGRAM: English High School, as its "magnet" feature, offers an array of teaching and learning "M.O.D.E.L.'s" (Methods Of Developing Effective Learning). Major programs available to students are Theatre Arts (acting, dancing, stage technology); Visual Arts (photography, ceramics, painting & drawing, crafts); and "M.O.D.E.L." Curriculum (curriculum and course of study determined by individual students).

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: Currently there are 200 students (118 Hispanic & 82 Haitian) enrolled in bilingual programs conducted in Spanish and French. Curriculum offerings for these students are the same as available to other students: College, Business, and Careers.

COURSES: English has many specialized courses developed to support its major programs. Courses making up part of the Theatre Arts Program have been Acting, Directing, Voice, Dance and Stage Design. As part of the Visual Arts Program, Art History, Print-making, Sculpture, Television and Film-making have been offered. In addition, there is a diversity of other elective courses ranging from Photo Journalism to Oceanography.

Courses have been provided to bilingual students in both core-subject areas and electives.

"Career Exploration": There is a 9th grade Career Exploratory program. The students rotate every 4 weeks into courses in Business, Theatre Arts, Visual Arts and Industrial Arts. Vocational training programs at English include Business Careers, Food Service (in conjunction with John Hancock), Flexible Campus (work/study placements), and Industrial Arts (Graphic Arts, Woodworking, Power Technology).

"Special Needs": There are 228 students at English who have been determined to have special needs. Special needs programs at the school include the use of regular resource rooms, bilingual resource rooms and physically-handicapped resource rooms. Special services personnel include a part-time Vision resource teacher, & 2 Core Evaluation Team Leaders (CETL).

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: State Dept. of Education Chapter 636 funding in the amount of $199,000 has been allocated to English for the 78-79 school year. The following programs have been developed using this money: a Theatre Arts Program, Teacher's Center, an Art Program, and a Bilingual Newspaper.

English High School collaborates with U.Mass, Brandeis University, and Mass. College of Art. Each of these pairings is designed to support and enhance the "M.O.D.E.L." Magnet Theme of English High.

The business pairing with John Hancock has resulted in the Executive Intern Program, the Work Exploration Program and the Restaurant Management Program.

There are remedial services funded through Title I and Chapter 636.

The Flexible Campus Program at English allows students to leave their regular programs for a period of time to participate in opportunities such as: internships at John Hancock; volunteer work at Day Care Centers & Elderly Centers; college-level courses at U.Mass, Northeastern or Boston State College; the EDCO "Space", "Lab", "American Experience" programs; and the Occupational Resource Center & Boston Trade. About 1000 students from the school participate in this program.

The Guidance Department at English has 6 counselors, who work out of 3 Guidance Suites in the building. In these suites, students have access to vocational, college and business school catalogues.

Health services are provided by 2 full-time nurses. The school also has a "Parenting Program" to assist pregnant students.

The school is equipped with 4 cafeterias which serve breakfast and a hot lunch.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Of 475 students who graduated last year 192 went to college, 24 went to business schools, 4 entered technical schools, 31 entered military service, 1 ertered nursing school, & 42 entered employment.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

The English High School, founded in 1821 is the oldest public high school in the United States. English High School throughout its history has sought to be responsive to the changing needs of its student population.

Since 1975, the school has been a member of the Magnet School district. In response to the needs of the new student population attracted to the school by this designation, the English High community chose not to emphasize one Magnet theme. Instead, it emphasizes that English High is a magnet school offering several teaching and learning M.O.D.E.L.s (Methods Of Developing Effective Learning).

Traditionally, the English High School has been a comprehensive high school where students, without regard to race, creed, color, national origin or economic status, have been guided in achieving their own best development and in reaching their maximum potential in preparation for a useful life in a democracy. The M.O.D.E.L. PROGRAM being developed seeks to enhance this same goal by maximizing the options by which all students may complete their high school education.

FACILITIES

The present English High School building was opened in 1973. It has 10 floors and can accommodate 2200 students. There are 12 science labs, 7 Art rooms, 4 resource rooms, 7 Business Education rooms, 1 Woodworking shop, 1 Electrical shop, and 1 Graphic Arts shop. The school also has an auditorium, a library and a gym. Facility needs are additional dressing rooms and more space for the Theatre Department.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"Major themes are: Art & Theater; but they are not integrated into the third Major theme of a 'Comprehensive High School'." * "Mass. College of Art has been much involved with the Art Department." * "The school is seriously overcrowded." * "To a limited extent, (parents), mainly the REPC, have been supportive and helpful." * "The problem of discipline -- students cutting classes, wandering corridors, etc. -- seems almost insurmountable." * "An excellent education is possible -- for those few motivated students willing to reach out to get it."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The varsity sports at the school are: Basketball, Football, Volleyball, Hockey, Track, Badminton, and Soccer.

Chess, Yearbook, Bilingual and Math are the club activities available for students at English. There are Art, Music, Drama and Dance programs for students. A school newspaper is published 4 times a year and is supported by Chapter 636 funds. No transportation is provided for after-school activities.

In discipline, the following procedures are used: suspension, alternative work details, counseling, parental contact and 766 referral. The "Code of Discipline" of the Boston Public Schools (1970) is used as a guide. As of January 1979, there had been 462 suspensions for this school year.

Students are elected and volunteer for the Student Council. Members of the Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC) are chosen from the Student Council.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The students get along pretty well." * "We need more participation from the students." * "The Art Department is really good." * "A good theater art magnet." * "Pretty good athletic programs, for girls as well as boys." * "School spirit is weak." * "Some students don't know how to use the advantages."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is a Racial/Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) which meets once a month or, if need be, more often. The Headmaster attends all meetings on request.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"The teachers are great, very cooperative." * "Students learn to get along with all races." * "The new Headmaster is actively involved with the parents." * "Courses are very good." * "It is a hassle to get the courses you want." * "They should hire more guidance counselors." * "Lack of enough custodians." * "It is a good school." * "The school is very responsive to parents."*

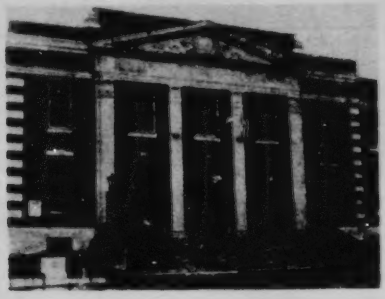
RESEARCHER COMMENT

The students' educational experience at English High School is enhanced by the supportive assistance offered to them by their new administrator.

His "open-door" policy to all students is to be commended.

Although the facility is relatively new, its physical appearance needs much improvement

Hyde Park High



HYDE PARK HIGH SCHOOL
655 METROPOLITAN AVENUE
HYDE PARK, MASSACHUSETTS 02136
Telephone: 361-8080

Michael A. Donato, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 1131
White: 451; Black: 658;
Other Minority: 22

A District 4 school with a Magnet Cooperative Industrial Program

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Hyde Park High School is a comprehensive four-year high school serving the Hyde Park/Mattapan district. It has a wide variety of students with different ethnic backgrounds and interests.

The faculty seeks to assist students in assessing their capabilities and exploring existing vocational and educational opportunities. Teachers work to help students in developing the skills and acquiring the knowledge necessary to increase their success in future employment and/or post secondary education.

Each 9th grade student, in consultation with a guidance counselor, outlines either a college preparatory or business program. This includes elective courses in three vocational areas: Distributive Education (wholesaling and retailing), Consumer Education, or Industrial Arts.

MAGNET PROGRAM: A "magnet" machine shop program is located at Hyde Park High School. Students from any part of Boston may apply for assignment to this Cooperative Industrial Program. (For more information see the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section in this book.)

COURSES: All students take four years of English and Physical Education, two years of Math and Science, and one year of U.S. History. Each year students may select one or more additional courses from a group of elective options, according to their abilities and interests. Such courses include: Honors Program (in English, Science & Math), Computer Science, languages, History, Psychology, Child Development, Art, Music, and Drama. Other elective courses are: Creative Textiles, Marketing, Foods, Clothing, Tailoring, Consumer Economics, Typing, Shorthand, Business Machines, Bookkeeping, Woodworking, Printing, and Mechanical Drawing.

"Career Exploration" is integrated into the curriculum during the freshman year. Career materials are available in the library and students have access to the Massachusetts Occupational Information Service (MOIS) computer.

"Special Needs": About 200 students are involved in some manner in the various special needs programs which have been developed at the school to meet the individual needs of all students, from the gifted to the educationally-limited.

There are 7 resource rooms with five resource teachers and two aides. All but 60 students are "mainstreamed" (included in regular courses and activities) to some extent, in their educational programs. Some of the students take their academic subjects at the high school and then take part in programs at the Occupational Resource Center, Boston Trade, or Y.E.S. (a student employment program).

Sixty students are enrolled in the Occupational Skill Development Center. This provides an opportunity for students with limited academic ability to participate in a program which prepares them to function with maximum independence in every day life. The program consists of 5 component parts: restaurant, mailroom and maintenance work; home training; and academics.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: Stonehill College is the college paired with Hyde Park High. Stonehill has done extensive work on the school's remedial reading and enrichment programs. It has also provided tutors, tennis facilities, bus transportation for field trips, and access to the Brockton Art Center.

The business pairing for the school is the First National Bank of Boston. The bank has aided the school in a variety of ways including: paying half the cost of books to be distributed by the R.I.F. reading program; making jobs available to students at the bank; planning workshops for seniors and juniors on obtaining jobs; conducting a computer class at the bank; furnishing buses for field trips for the Special Needs group; paying for developing a reading program at the school; and other like activities.

ESAA funds have been utilized in providing transportation and teacher coverage for field trips.

Through the Flexible Campus Program, work experience is available to students as volunteer tutors, as hospital aides, and in various bank jobs. Other programs available to students include: Another Course to College (ACC); Project Space (attending school mornings, working afternoons); Reading Is Fundamental (R.I.F.); and the Long Island Program (for career exploration in the health field).

The school utilizes the services of a variety of community agencies such as: YAC (Youth Activities Commission); West-Ros Park (referral for mental health and drug problems); Association for Reduction of Violence (visits to prisons); Lena Park Community Center and Mass Transition (for drug referrals).

The school has a guidance staff of 4, a health room with a full-time nurse and a visiting doctor, and a cafeteria providing a breakfast and hot lunch program.

Regular standardized testing in Math and Reading is given for the purpose of placing students in classes and determining their need for remedial help. Grades are reported 4 times a year, with warnings mailed to parents at the mid-point of each term, in the event their child is failing in a course.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 251 students were graduated from the school with 76 students going to college, 48 entering technical schools, 58 entering business training programs, 18 entering military service, and 90 entering some form of employment. Among the graduates, 162 received scholarship aid to further their studies.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Hyde Park High School is a comprehensive high school serving the Hyde Park/Mattapan community.

We feel it is unique, even as a district high school, in that it serves the only contiguous black and white neighborhood in the city.

The staff and administration have established a number of ethnically balanced programs to fulfill the educational needs of its student body.

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The school has joined with the First National Bank and Stonehill College to establish programs dealing with reading, cultural enrichment and vocational placement and awareness.

While a great deal is left to be done, we feel that the many positive programs in operation now are yielding positive results and have improved the educational environment of the school.

FACILITIES

The present Hyde Park High School building was constructed in 1927. The structure has three floors and can house up to 1100 students. Among its features are: an auditorium, a gymnasium, a cafeteria, 4 typing rooms, a business machine room, 2 science labs, and an art room. The school has a library and it is staffed by a full-time librarian.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"Great facilities for special education - 766 program." * Something has to be done about getting parents more involved with their school and children." * "Discipline is almost non-existent, unfair and not consistent." * "There is little communication between faculty groups." * "Students have many opportunities to participate in special seminars and working programs (flexible campus)."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Sports activities for the students include: football, soccer, cross country, basketball, baseball, hockey, track, golf, tennis, volleyball, swimming, badminton, and softball. Cultural and hobby activities are available in photography, music, art, drama, and dance. Transportation is provided for students participating in after-school activities.

The school follows the 1971 city-wide Code of Discipline, as issued by the Boston School Committee; under these guide lines, about 40 students have been suspended during the first half of the 1978-79 school year.

A Student Council of about 40 students works on school/student relations and programs. The Council is comprised of representatives elected from each homeroom. The Headmaster attends the Council meetings every other month. In addition there is a Racial/Ethnic Student Council consisting of members elected from the larger Student Council.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"Some students are able to relate with others." * "If you're into sports Hyde Park is the place to go." * "We have some people who just don't like the idea of sharing a classroom." * "Almost all the windows leak air." * "Take the Machine Shop course." * "It is a pretty good school."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Parents at Hyde Park High are actively involved in the Racial/Ethnic Parent Council and the Home & School Association. In addition, parents have an opportunity to be present in the school during school hours, through volunteer work in the Parent Information Center (funded in part with Chapter 636 funds). Parents publish a regular newsletter and have raised thousands of dollars for scholarship aid to graduating students.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"Kids are free to come into the parents' room at any time to talk about their problems." * "The special needs program is terrific." * "There are too many programs that involve students leaving school - there should be more supervision of work study programs." * "My son has not brought home homework in the last two years." * "There are many good programs here."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

Although the school building is basically sound, it needs a complete paint job throughout, new toilet facilities, and a new floor for the gymnasium.

There is an excellent remedial reading lab center and a small group of parents are actively involved in the Parent Information Center and other parent groups.

Jamaica Plain High

JAMAICA PLAIN HIGH SCHOOL
70 ELM STREET (present address)
144 McBRIDE STREET (as of Sept., 1979)
JAMAICA PLAIN, MASSACHUSETTS 02130
Telephone: 524-4074

Edward F. McHugh, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 932
White: 167; Black: 531;
Other Minority: 234

A District 2 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Jamaica Plain High School is a comprehensive four-year district high school which emphasizes "Basic Skills". Course offerings will be expanded significantly when the school opens in its new facility in September, 1979. The educational program includes the College Course, for students who wish to prepare for study at the college level, and the Business Course, which prepares students either for direct entry into business or retailing careers or for additional training in business.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: Jamaica Plain High was the first high school in Boston to offer bilingual instruction. The Bilingual Program is conducted in Spanish. There are 105 students in the program; some take the College Course and others the Business Course.

COURSES: All students are required to take Civics, Health, U.S. History, and four years of English. Students choose their courses in the spring for the following academic year.

The College Preparatory Course includes courses in English, foreign language, History, Science and Mathematics. A 9th grade student in the College Course may take one elective. Tenth grade students have 14 electives from which to choose. Eleventh and twelfth grade students have a greater number of options including: French, Spanish, Art, Science, Drafting, Journalism, Drama, Foods, and Nursery School Training. Advanced work is offered to 11th grade College Course students in English, Science, Math, and History.

The Business Course prepares students for careers in merchandising, bookkeeping, stenography and business machines. In addition to the required courses listed before, Business students take General Business and such other courses as: Accounting I, II & III, Typing, Shorthand, Distribution, Office Practice, and Data Processing. Business students have the same options for electives as students in the College Course.

"Career Exploration": The Career Exploratory program is required for all 9th grade students and contains 4 parts: Exploring Careers, Industrial Arts Shop, Government Jobs, and Food Service. The Distributive Education Program offers work-study opportunities to students specializing in merchandising.

Other sources of career information are printed materials, available in the Guidance Office & library, and Flexible Campus opportunities.

"Special Needs": A full-time Core Evaluation Team Leader (CETL) coordinates services to special needs students. The school has 4 special education classes this year. The new school is designed to accommodate physically handicapped students, and programs and services for special needs students are to be expanded in the new building.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: For the school year 1978-79, Jamaica Plain High School received $89,290 in State funding through Chapter 636. Using these funds, the school, in conjunction with its university partner, Simmons College, has provided tutorials, curriculum development, field trips, support staff, & the school newspaper. Jamaica Plain High has 2 business partners: Boston Gas Co. and the Travelers Insurance Co. A Job-Hunting Techniques Program for 11th & 12th grade students was instituted as a result of these partnerships, and a lecture on L.N.G. (liquefied natural gas) was presented to Science classes.

The school has a Title I Reading program.

Under the Flexible Campus Program, students may participate in alternative educational activities. Students from the school presently are enrolled in Flexible Campus programs at Boston Trade, the Pilot O.R.C., EDCO, A.C.C., and Urban Studies.

Jamaica Plain High School utilizes such community agencies as Youth Employment Services (YES), the Job Development Program, & the Neighborhood Development Corporation's Tradewinds Program, which offers training in Carpentry & other related trades. The Kiwanis Club and local day care centers & nursery schools provide practical experience opportunities for students in some courses.

The Guidance Office is staffed by two full-time counselors and one half-time bilingual counselor. College catalogues and materials on job search techniques are available in the Guidance Office. The Health Room is staffed by a full-time school nurse, and a physician is scheduled to visit the school on a daily basis. Breakfast and hot lunch are available.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Jamaica Plain High graduated 122 students last year. Of these, 41 went to college (16 received scholarships), 1 enrolled in technical school, 4 entered business training programs, 16 joined the military, and 22 are presently employed.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

The New Jamaica Plain High is a comprehensive school, offering complete programs of academic, vocational and technical courses.

This new Southwest II, Jamaica Plain High School, features several new regulation athletic fields, a complete track facility, locker rooms, & a fully-equipped modern gym. Within the bright, attractively furnished classrooms, a wide variety of courses will be available for all students, geared to their interests and talents.

Southwest II, Boston's newest school, will provide the ideal setting for innovative programs in the Language Labs, Science Labs, a Photography Lab, Cooking Center, Energy Lab, and an area dedicated to Music and art. Student participation and training will be projected in the School Store & Child Development programs.

Southwest II has special programs with: an individualized approach to learning; a strong emphasis on basic skills to prepare students for College; specialized training for bilingual, alternative, and special needs students.

FACILITIES

This is the last year that Jamaica Plain High School is to operate in its present 78-year-old building. The new "Jamaica Plain Community High School" (sometimes called "Southwest II") has been created by recycling & remodeling a former plant of the Boston Gas Co. The new five-story school will have: several athletic fields, tennis courts, an all-weather track, an auditorium, a modern gym & a cafeteria.

In addition, this new building will contain 6 science labs, 2 Art rooms, 4 resource rooms, 2 language labs, 3 typing rooms, 2 business machine rooms, and 4 industrial arts shops (Power Energy, Wood Metal, Graphics & Mechanical Drawing). The library will be staffed with a full-time librarian.

TEACHER COMMENTS: Teachers at Jamaica Plain High who were asked to complete questionnaires for this guide, declined, saying they preferred not to comment on current programs and facilities because of the improvements expected when the new school opens. The following statement was drafted by one teacher and approved by several others:

Students, teachers and administration are all looking forward to the new Jamaica Plain High School with its tremendous facilities for a strengthened academic and occupational program. Updating of present course offerings is now going on. Parents will be pleased to see that Basic Skills are an integral part of the curriculum and that Art & Music courses will be greatly expanded.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The school has both Varsity and Intramural teams in Basketball, Track, Football, Hockey, Baseball, Volleyball, Tennis and Soccer. Clubs at J. P. High are the National Honor Society, Afro-American Cultural [illegible] Photography Club, Journalism Club, Drama Club, and Chess Club. The school newspaper is published once a month. Transportation is provided for after-school activities.

The Student Council is comprised of 10 elected members. There is a Faculty Advisor who supervises the Council.

Discipline procedures at the school were developed by a committee of teachers, students, and parents, along with staff from Simmons College. As of early January, 150 students have been suspended this school year.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"We have some good classes." * "The teachers usually try hard to teach whatever they can." * "The math department is pretty good." * "The school isn't that bad. but it should be better and it can't get better without everyone's cooperation." * "There isn't much participation in school affairs." * "It's too free, anybody does what they want." * "It's better than most people think." * "We will have a new school, and it is offering a lot."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The school has a Parent Council (REPC) which meets monthly on a regular basis, but more frequently when issues demand immediate attention. The Headmaster sends a representative to REPC meetings. Members of the Home & School Association meet informally with faculty and administration.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"They should offer a better and wider variety of programs for students." * "The children want to and are learning their subjects." * "There is no real form of discipline carried out." * "If the principal took a stronger interest in the school students would learn more." * "Food in the cafeteria should be improved." * "The school doesn't seem to be open to suggestions from parents or anyone else." * "From September of 1978 up to January 7, 1979 the administrator has not attended any REPC meetings." * "Maybe with the opening of the new school improvements will be available."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

The building now known as Jamaica Plain High School is uninviting, drab, and lacking the needed space and facilities to provide the type of programs that students, faculty, parents and the Headmaster would welcome at the school.

With the opening of the new Jamaica Plain High School (referred to in planning documents as Southwest II), with its track course, football field, Home Economics Department, photography & science labs, the thought of spending the day in school will surely be a more pleasing one.

Madison Park High

MADISON PARK HIGH SCHOOL
55 NEW DUDLEY STREET
ROXBURY, MASSACHUSETTS 02119
Telephone: 445-2440

Thomas P. Hennessey, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 2329
White: 961; Black: 1076;
Other Minority: 292

A "Magnet" District 9 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The central objective at Madison Park is to offer a multitude of courses and special programs to meet students' varied interests and needs without conventional tracking. In all major subject areas, courses range from remedial to honors to college level; individual programming is used to place the students. The programs are designed to allow each student to work at her/his own levels of skill and interest. To create a more familiar and supportive setting for the students, the school is sub-divided into "houses". A student remains assigned to a particular "house" during her/his years at Madison Park.

MAGNET PROGRAM: Music; Media & Communications; and Theater & Dance; are the three major magnet themes at Madison Park. Within each of these programs, an effort is made to develop the students' awareness of careers related to the fields of study.

The Music Magnet program offers a full range of music instruction in voice, instruments, electronic music and music theory. Courses are given in creating, performing, and listening to music, individually and in small and large groupings. The Media and Communication Magnet is a three-year program that trains students for a career or a college major in communications. Students in this program produce the Madison Park Times (the school newspaper) and the yearbook, both of which have won awards. They also use the school's radio and television studios to produce programs for in-school use and for cable TV presentation. The Theater & Dance Magnet program is designed to prepare students for careers or further education in the performing arts.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: The school offers bilingual programs to approximately 250 students. Courses are taught in Spanish and Cape Verde Portuguese. Bilingual students have the opportunity to enroll in all courses offered at the school.

COURSES: All students are required to take 4 years of English, 2 years of Math, Social Studies and Science courses. Science courses available at the school are Earth Science, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Anatomy, and Environmental Science. Business courses range from 9th grade Business Exploration to an advanced course in Office Simulation. Students are trained on a wide variety of office machines.

Madison Park has developed intensive remedial reading programs. The 3 components of this program are Reading Centers, Reading Clusters, and Title I Reading.

Students in grades 10, 11, and 12 at Madison Park have honors level and college study opportunities in English, Math, Science & foreign languages. French, Italian, Spanish, German and Latin are the languages taught at the school. Language labs are available to assist students.

"Career Exploration": All 9th grade students are enrolled (on a rotating basis) in 4 Career Exploratory units: Business-related; Food, Home & Health-related; Industry-related; and magnet program-related. All 10th graders take a Career Planning course. In addition, career information is included in the course materials of the different subjects taught. The school has a Career Awareness Resource Center where a variety of materials are located. A MOIS (Mass. Occupational Information System) computer is also available for student use.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: State Chapter 636 funds ($143,610) are used to support a variety of programs with cultural and educational institutions. Madison Park's major cultural partners are the New England Conservatory of Music & the Theatre Company of Boston, which provide the school with musicians, dancers & actors to enhance the Arts magnet themes. Other cultural partners are the Boston Zoological Society & the Neighborhood Art Center.

Northeastern University, Madison Park's paired university, has supplied Biology teaching assistants; has helped to develop basic skills, Law institute and Student Government programs; has admitted students to college courses; and has provided tutors for achievement tests. Blue Cross/Blue Shield & the Suffolk Franklin Savings Bank, the school's business partners, have arranged internships, job-hunting workshops, jobs, and speakers.

There are 2 Title I reading teachers & an aide at Madison Park. ESAA money supports Physical Education Curriculum Development & after-school programs in Dance and Photography. A Flexible Campus Coordinator assists students with their choices of off-campus programs & sites.

Madison Park students receive services from over 30 different community agencies. Among these are: Red Cross, Tufts Medical, Roxbury Multi-Service Center, Mass. Eye & Ear, B.U. Medical, Freedom House, Asmalos House, Whittier Health Center, Cardinal Cushing Center, Cooper Community Center, Alianza Hispana, Roxbury Action Program, Lower Roxbury Community Corp., Third Nail, YMCA, and the Boys' Club. Students are referred to health centers according to where they live.

Madison Park has 1 part-time & 5 full-time guidance counselors to serve its student body. The school has 2 full-time nurses, and a doctor visits daily. Tenth graders take a mandatory Health course. Breakfast and lunch are served daily.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 303 students graduated from Madison Park. 120 went to college, 6 entered technical school, 24 entered business training programs, 10 entered military service and 61 are presently employed. Those who went on to further study received over $150,000 in financial assistance.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Madison Park offers a comprehensive high school curriculum with magnet program options in Music, Media & Communications, Theatre & Dance, Career Education, and the Basic Skills. These programs offer students the opportunity, upon graduation, to be prepared for a job or to continue with their education.

All educational programs provide for a strong emphasis in skills and Career Awareness which allows a student to prepare for college admission, a business career or more general career options. All students are required to take certain core subjects but are then assisted in developing an individualized program based on students' capabilities, needs and interests.

Madison Park High is divided into houses to allow students and teachers to provide services to the homerooms located therein.

FACILITIES

Having opened in 1977, Madison Park is one of the newest and most modern school structures in Boston. Its 6 buildings and its terraces, malls, tennis courts, and playing fields form a campus occupying a large area of land. Its 2 large academic buildings contain classrooms, the library (with full-time librarian), a career resource center, a media center, a cafeteria and a theater. Other buildings house 15 science labs, the Music Magnet, 5 Industrial Arts shops and several gyms & swimming pools. There are also 3 Art rooms, 2 language labs, 4 typing and 4 business machine rooms.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"This is a new program and developing OK." * "The faculty is young and are doers for the most part." * "I have observed some parents playing a useful role in Madison Park." * "Good atmosphere, good facility, good staff." * "I've been in many Boston schools - this is one of the best."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

An extensive program of varsity and intramural sports is available at Madison Park. These sports include Football, Soccer, Baseball, Basketball, Track, Softball, Hockey, Swimming, Volleyball, Badminton and Bowling.

Photography and Dance clubs are presently being developed by the staff. Art classes are offered to students on and off campus (at Casa del Sol). Music, theater, dance and drama are also available to students during & after school. Transportation is provided for after-school activities. The school has a Student Council consisting of 168 members, with 2 representatives elected from each homeroom. Council members participate in developing discipline procedures and they serve as liaisons between students & housemasters. The Council was responsible for obtaining a Drivers Education Course for the school. The Headmaster attends Student Council meetings.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"Good atmosphere." * "It has very good facilities." * "Good opportunity for continuing education." * "Two strengths of my school are the Media and sport activities." * "Do meetings and organise the school." * "The teaching is its strength."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Madison Park's Parent Council (REPC) meets twice a month. Its meetings are attended by the Headmaster. A full-time Parent Outreach Coordinator is responsible for setting up the meetings.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"My expectations have been met." * "Kids are more encouraged to work on their own." * "There's not much for the average child." * "The school was opened before it was ready." * "A great opportunity for anyone interested in the musical field." * "The Guidance Dept. is very shorthanded." * "They should weed out the kids who don't want to be here." * "It is a nice school." * "There is lots to be done here."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

Madison Park is a school of great opportunity with a fantastic selection of programs. Their Course Catalog is similar to a college outline. The administrators and faculty envision that informed, motivated, aware and self-disciplined adults will emerge from the ranks of Madison Park High.

Madison Park needs more parent input to help it attain these goals. It needs some assistance with disciplinary problems, which stem mostly from students who are in the school not by choice. The school needs to increase its number of Guidance Counselors, and expand its custodial staff. It needs more cooperation to remedy the following situations: the lack of traffic signals in front; the defective kitchen equipment; generators that malfunction; and very inadequate telephone service (too few outside lines). Madison Park also needs a little more time to become the unparalled campus high school it was designed to be.

Roxbury High

ROXBURY HIGH SCHOOL
35 GREENVILLE STREET
ROXBURY, MASSACHUSETTS 02119
Telephone: 427-2524

Charles F. Ray, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 550
White: 22; Black: 276;
Other Minority: 242

A District 7 school

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

At this school, the emphasis is for each student to reach his/her potential. The student is seen as a person, and the faculty and administration attempt to respond to individual student needs from both an academic and a social standpoint.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: There are 2 bilingual programs at the school, one conducted in Spanish and the other in Chinese.

COURSES: A business and a college preparatory course are offered. The ninth grade curriculum emphasizes English (including Reading) and Math, since these subjects are seen as the foundation for the subsequent high school years, college, and life.

The business course includes typing, shorthand, and bookkeeping, as well as other practical courses for work in the business world. This year, 250 students are enrolled in this course.

The college course requires three years of Math. Also, because most colleges require a foreign language, at least two years' study of a foreign language is strongly encouraged. Harvard University provides advanced work in Math and Science for grades 11 and 12. There are 300 students enrolled in the college course. Each course, business and college, has bilingual students enrolled.

Students can choose electives at all grade levels. These electives include Spanish, French, Art, Music, General Woodworking, Clothing and Foods.

"Career Exploration": In the Career Exploratory Program (9th grade), emphasis is given to showing students the various career possibilities open to them. Each week a person from such fields as law, medicine, aviation, or geology speaks to classes of about 25 students, introducing them to the various types of work involved in different professions. Woodworking, and two levels of Foods and Clothing are electives which provide vocational skills.

Students who enroll in Distributive Education in the 10th grade may elect to participate in a Work-Study Program in 12th grade. The Work-Study Program releases students for four hours per day to work in such establishments as Harvard, Sears, Jordan Marsh, State Street Bank and McDonalds. This program includes instruction by a teacher specialized in merchandising.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: Harvard University is paired with the school and provides some of the career speakers, as well as a tutorial program in all subject areas. Over half of the tutors are concentrated in Reading. The Reading tutors are screened and trained by Harvard's Reading Department.

State Street Bank is the business which is paired with the school. It provides students with employment opportunities and has helped in reviewing the business curriculum.

Students may participate in Flexible Campus Programs at Boston State College, University of Mass., Boston Trade, and the Occupational Resource Center.

The school has a Title I Reading program conducted by 2 teachers and 2 aides.

Under a program funded by "Chapter 636" four outreach workers visited every 9th grade home before school opened last fall. Some tutoring programs also are provided through Chapter 636 funds.

The Boys' Club provides its gym for girls' basketball. Students also receive services from the Roxbury Multi-Service Center, the Solomon Carter Fuller Center and the Roxbury Dental and Medical Group.

This year, a Teacher Corps program has been introduced at the school.

"Guidance": There is one full-time guidance counselor at the school. There are also 3 part-time counselors: one for Spanish bilingual students; one for Chinese bilingual students; and one for 9th grade students. The bilingual counselors are present 2 days a week; the 9th grade counselor is at the school two and a half days a week. Each student is assisted individually with course selection every year. In addition, the counselors help with college and vocational planning and with job placement. They are also sources for personal counseling and help.

There is a Massachusetts Occupational Information System (MOIS) terminal located in the Guidance Office. A student can put her/his career interest into this computer system and get feed-back concerning the preparation necessary, the job opportunities anticipated, the locations of such employment, and the schools offering related studies.

A nurse is on duty full-time at the school. In addition, a pediatrician and a psychiatrist are at the school for four and a half hours each week.

A breakfast (cold) and a lunch (hot) are provided daily.

"Grading and Reporting": The school uses letter grades, with A-B-C as "passing", and D-E as "failing". Grades are reported four times a year to parents. Between marking periods, warning notices are mailed first class to parents of students who may be failing. These notices state reasons for the student's poor school performance.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 58 students were graduated. Of these, 24 went on to college, 2 entered technical school, 5 entered a business training course, and 3 went into the military service. Eighteen of the graduates received scholarships for further study.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

Roxbury High School is a school in which students are people and not just numbers. Our enrollment of 550 students enables the faculty and staff to get to know all of our students. Because of the lower numbers, compared to some other schools, we are able to more readily identify the individual needs of our students.

With identification of needs, we can then plan to come up with methods and prescriptions to help our students.

We have a fine faculty to serve our student body, and a great togetherness that pervades all school activities. The stress of our faculty is for all students to reach their potential, both academically and socially.

FACILITIES

The school was built in 1904. The plumbing is in good condition, and the school has new electrical wiring, showers and lavatories. The building is clean and looks cared for. Improvements currently being sought are: painting of the halls and rooms, new stoves for the cafeteria, the refurbishing of the heating system, and a new science laboratory.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"Discipline is a problem in the school." • "There is some integration among the students." • "Many classrooms don't have enough materials." • "Parents won't participate." • "There's Chinese, Spanish, Black and White students attending Roxbury, which makes it very culturally enriching to the staff as well as the students."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Varsity sports offered are: football, baseball, softball, basketball, track, and volleyball. Transportation is provided for these sports programs.

Discipline is handled on an individual basis by the headmaster and assistant headmaster. The emphasis is on avoiding suspension. Students, teachers and the administration meet together in committees to consider the problems, with the focus on "treating with respect". (There have been few suspensions this school year.)

The school has a Student Council. Each home room elects a representative and an alternate to the Council, and some at-large members are appointed to it.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The strengths in our school are that some people care what happens to it." • "The principal is nice and the teachers want you to learn." • "Students cut classes and they don't respect the teachers." • "The work is reasonable." • "This school, regrettably, has been a waste of time for me, and not worth the effort of my waking up the mornings I do come." • "We need more books for the bilingual students." • "You'll get help if you ask for it, I did."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is a Racial/Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) at the school. It meets twice a month to consider programs and plans. There is a monthly newsletter, "Parent-to-Parent", produced through the Roxbury-Harvard program.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"There's an educational process going on in that old building." • "Teachers should be more firm with students." • "I have no complaints." • "It's a losing battle; so few parents take an interest." • "There are fine teachers." • "Spanish and Chinese shy away from participation in the school."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

If an editorial comment on Roxbury High School were limited to one word, that word would be "care". An old building -- and it is cared for; students from diverse cultures -- and they are cared about; a "Program of Studies" -- assembled in such a caring way that course offerings are easy to understand; and discipline (the ability to practice self-control) -- handled carefully and individually.

Because of the small student body, it is possible for the faculty and administration to work closely with the students in helping them find their direction at their own pace towards growing (maturing) academically and socially.

1000

South Boston High

SOUTH BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL
95 G STREET
SOUTH BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02127
Telephone: 268-2928

Jerome Winegar, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 928
White: 414; Black: 402;
Other minority: 112

A District 6 school with a Magnet Cooperative Industrial Program

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

South Boston High is a comprehensive school designed to focus on the developmental needs of its students. A wide variety of alternative educational programs are offered to students attending this school. Emphasis is placed on the basic skills, Reading, Writing and Mathematics.

MAGNET PROGRAM: The Sheet Metal and Auto Body Programs at South Boston High are Magnet Cooperative Industrial Programs and therefore open to students from all sections of the city. (For more information about these programs see the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section of this book.)

COURSES: At South Boston High, students are not "tracked" into the traditional College or Business courses, but are offered choices in "curriculum approaches". The approaches offered are: 1) "Comprehensive" - a variety of academic and vocational programs; 2) "Alternative" - individual program units within the school; and 3) "Cooperative Vocational" - shop courses and work experience.

All students are allowed to choose electives beginning at the ninth-grade level. Homeroom teachers and guidance counselors help students in their selection of electives. Electives may be selected twice a year. Decisions as to what electives are to be offered are made with student input.

"Career Exploration": There is an extensive Career Exploratory Program available to ninth-grade students. Every six weeks, mini-courses are developed (by 12 teachers) so as to include various fields of study, such as Photography, Theatre Arts, and Oceanography. Each ninth-grader has the opportunity to choose her/his own advisor to this program and most get their first choice.

A Massachusetts Occupational Information System (MOIS) is available at the school to help students explore career opportunities.

Under the Work/Study Program, some of the work-sites utilized are: the Federal Reserve Bank, Gillette, Liberty Mutual, McDonalds, and London Harness. Some students are involved in Project Y.E.S. Under this program a full-time liaison person works with students monitoring their grades & attendance (compulsory with the regulations of this program). Students in this program work 20 hours a week during the school year & 40 hours a week during the Summer. Many of these students receive academic credit for job performance.

"Special Needs": Three resource rooms & three substantially-separate classrooms are utilized by 237 special needs students. These students are mainstreamed, where possible, into regular programs.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: South Boston High is paired with the University of Massachusetts. Under this pairing, an Educational Program for Paraprofessional Support Service Personnel was developed and is being implemented through U.Mass/College III.

There are two businesses paired with this school, the Federal Reserve Bank and the Gillette Company. Products of these business pairings are: a full-time staff person, curriculum development, a liaison person for community resources, and counseling & student placement.

The Theatre Company of Boston is the cultural institution paired with this school. A Theatre Arts Component and an Artists-as-Resources Program have been developed through this pairing.

State Dept. of Education "Chapter 636" funds, in the amount of $67,824. have been used to develop the following: Thompson's Island Program; Salem State/Support Staff Development; City Cycles; Theatre Arts; & a program with U.Mass/College III.

ESAA funds in the amount of $200,000., have provided for: an In-School Suspension Program; Harbor Environments (Thompson's Island); Field Trips; a Saco River canoe trip; Exploring Childhood; & Discovering Pre-School.

A Title I Reading program is available at the school for students needing remedial assistance. There are other remedial programs in Reading & Math funded through the regular school budget.

Additional programs offered to students include: Another Course to College (ACC); Industrial Arts; Metro-Pathways (flexible campus); Business Lab; Driver Education; a "School-within-a-school" program; the Transportation Learning Center; the Quincy Market Project, a Commercial Foods program; a Work/Study Program; Multicultural Studies; a Restaurant Management Program; Distributive Education; & Reading/Writing workshops. Music, Art, Drama and Dance are also available. The school has a program at New England Medical Center this year for young pregnant women. It teaches them skills in infant care.

There are four guidance counselors at South Boston High. With the supervision of counselors, students can change their courses anytime during the school year.

A full-time nurse is on duty at the school and a doctor makes daily visits.

Report cards are graded by letter (A-B-C-D-E) for major subjects and Pass/Fail (P-F) for minor subjects.

Some community agencies offering services to South Boston High are: the South Boston & the Roxbury Boys' Clubs; Freedom House; Columbia Point APAC; South Boston Action Center; & the South Boston and the Roxbury Multi-Service Centers.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Of 147 graduates last year, 45 went to college and 30 received scholarships for further study.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

South Boston High is a comprehensive high school designed to meet the needs of a changing urban society. Instructional programs focus on the developmental needs of adolescent students with strong emphasis on the basic skills of Reading, Writing, Mathematics and interpersonal relations.

Students elect from the following curriculum approaches: 1. Comprehensive - Wide range of academic and vocational programs; 2. Alternative - Smaller organizational units within the regular school; 3. Cooperative Vocational - Work experience & vocational education conducted on alternate weeks in auto body and sheet metal.

FACILITIES

South Boston High was constructed in 1899. It is difficult to adapt the design of the building to program needs. The physical education facilities are poor. There are 4 floors housing 3 science labs, 1 art room, 1 language lab, 2 cafeterias, 3 typing rooms, 2 business machine rooms, 2 gyms, an auditorium and 7 shop rooms (1 machine shop, 1 woodworking shop, 2 sheet metal shops, 1 auto-mechanics shop, 1 welding shop, and 1 auto body shop). There is a library at the school staffed by a full-time librarian.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"The theme is to improve language skills, however it is not being integrated into the school program."* ★ *"Discipline is handled unfairly."* ★ *"The physical facilities are more than inadequate."* ★ *"Various School-within-a-school programs tend to attract many students."* ★ *"Parents are not playing a useful role in the school."* ★ *"I enjoy a positive relationship with the administrator."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

There is a racially diversified student council made up of approximately 25 volunteer members. This council acts as the Student Government of the school. Administration and faculty members participate in meetings when invited.

During the first 3 months of this school year, there have been 80 suspensions at the school, most due to fighting. Most of the suspended students chose to use the school's "In-School Suspension Program" rather than miss school entirely.

Varsity sports offered to students include: Football, Volleyball, Basketball, Baseball, Softball, Swimming, Badminton, Bowling, Track, Soccer, and Hockey. Transportation is provided for after-school activities.

There are 2 club activities available to students at South Boston High. One is called the Musician's Union and the other is DECA.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"At South Boston High you get good job opportunities."* ★ *"It offers many learning and helping programs."* ★ *"The teachers ain't teaching me nothing."* ★ *"We the people can't put up with the metal detectors, the searching and the aides any longer."* ★ *"There's hardly any fighting except for those certain persons who like to start trouble."* ★ *"Make the school more of a school than a prison."* ★ *"I believe the school is a good school."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

South Boston High has an REPC (Racial/Ethnic Parent Council) but it has not met this year. Parent involvement occurs through Parent Advisory Council groups such as the Title I Advisory Council.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"Help is available on an individual basis on any academic level."* ★ *"Students are not taught self-responsibility and self-motivation."* ★ *"Progress reports should be established."* ★ *"School officials are willing to meet with individual parents, however, needs have not always been met."* ★ *"Rules should apply fairly to all."* ★ *"Many jobs on work-study are NOT career related. McDonalds, etc."* ★ *"The school is responsive to both individuals and groups."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

The feeling generated at South Boston High School is one of excitement. The administrator knows all students by name, and students feel free to talk with him. Most faculty appeared to be helpful and interested in their students and what they were doing. The creative programs at South Boston High School give students a wide variety of academic options.

Mario Umana

MARIO UMANA HARBOR SCHOOL OF
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
312 BORDER STREET
EAST BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02128
Telephone: 569-6280/81

Gustave Anglin, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 1014
White: 410, Black: 474;
Other Minority: 130

A "Magnet" District 9 school
Grades 7-12

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The Mario Umana Harbor School offers the only 6 year Science and 4 year Technology programs in the Boston school system. The school occupies one of Boston's newest high school facilities. The primary goal of the Umana Harbor School is to provide high quality education for students who are interested in pursuing technical or scientific careers.

MAGNET PROGRAM: The magnet theme at the Umana emphasized Science, Math and Technology. This theme and the programs that relate to it, were developed with the assistance of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Wentworth Institute. Students are able to specialize in the following 5 areas: Aviation/Aerospace Technology; Computer Science; Electronics; Medical Technology; and Environmental Technology.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: The Umana has a bilingual program in Chinese and in Spanish for students in grades 7 and 8. The program is small, consisting of one classroom of students for each language. All the school's core subjects are taught in these classes.

COURSES: The core subject areas of the school are: English, Math, Social Studies, Physical Education, and Science. Students are required to take courses in these core subjects each year they attend the school, whether they enter at grade 7 or at grade 9. These required courses are seen as vital to the technical courses offered, and are therefore integrated into the magnet theme. In grades 9-12, electives are offered to students in Home Economics, Typing, Graphics, Music and Art. The language courses offered are Italian and Spanish. In grade 9, students take a course which explores the school's 5 specialized technical areas; in grade 10 they select which of these they will concentrate on for their remaining years at the Umana.

"Career Exploration" is integrated into the regular curriculum at the school. Grade 7 and 8 students take half-year courses in Woodworking, Metal Shop, Home Economics and Graphics. In grades 9 through 12 students learn about technological careers. A course in Career Preparation is part of the grade 12 program.

"Special Needs": Approximately 95 students with identified "special needs" attend the Umana. There are 5 classes at the school to provide special education. Efforts are being made to mainstream special needs students into technical and scientific classes.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: For the 78-79 school year, the Umana has received $139,129. from the State Dept. of Education for Chapter 636 supplementary programs. Through the school's partnership with M.I.T., Wentworth, and Mass. Port Authority, these funds are being used to develop the following programs: Reading Improvement, Math Improvement, Social Studies Development, Carver Awareness, Extended Computer Capabilities, Media Technology, and Technology Curriculum Development.

The school has a Title I Remedial Reading Program, which is staffed by a Reading Teacher and a Reading Aide. Some ESAA funds are also used to support reading and career programs.

An Air Force "Junior-Reserve Officers Training Corps" (R.O.T.C.) program is offered at the school, the only one in the Boston school system. Many of the students, male & female, are enrolled in this program.

Among the school's Flexible Campus placements for students are: MBTA and Mass Port internships, Museum of Fine Arts Courses, Another Course to College (ACC), YES training, work study, Trade High School, and ORC programs.

Various community agencies provide services to the school. Among these are: East Boston Community Development Corporation, East Boston Health Center, and the East Boston Drug Action Council.

Three full-time guidance counselors are at the school. Each is assigned to a particular grade level: 7th & 8th; 9th & 10th; 11th & 12th. In addition, the school has a Career and Occupational Counselor.

The school has a full-time nurse, as well as a Health teacher. Breakfast is available. Lunches are brought in frozen and then heated for serving. The new kitchen is expected to be working by Spring, 1979.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: June, 1979 will see the first class graduate from the Umana.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

The education program at the Umana Harbor School is designed to provide students with many options upon graduation: employment in a technical field; two or four year college programs in science or technology; or four year college in other fields. Although the school does not require an entrance examination, it has a rigorous academic program and high standards of achievement. Course work is often sequential and students are expected to devote considerable effort to academic studies. The educational program offered is demanding because the technical fields themselves are demanding. Discipline and academic standards must remain high for each student. To do less would only frustrate the potential achievement of all students.

FACILITIES

The Umana Harbor School was opened in 1974. The new facility has 36 instructional classrooms arranged in groups of 4, with glass partitions. Each room has a color television which can be used for closed circuit programs. There are ten science labs, two art rooms, five resource rooms and one typing room. Construction is not yet complete. Plans call for creating additional offices, enclosing the drafting room, repairing the swimming pool and constructing a new cafeteria.

The Umana also houses a community school program, available to people of the community, usually afternoons & evenings. The Headmaster has a close relationship with the staff of this program.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"It offers unique programs that no other Boston school offers." • "All the materials that are needed are not there." • "The parents are playing a useful role." • "Parents do not seem to want to communicate with me." • "A very good faculty." • "We aim for student achievement." • "We have our problems, but the Headmaster's door is open."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The school offers the following varsity sports: Football, Basketball, Softball, Soccer, Track, Swimming, Baseball, Tennis, Bowling, and Hockey.

Students may choose to participate in these clubs: Science, Music (orchestra), Chess, Swimming, Ski, and Yearbook. A school newspaper is in the planning stage. Transportation if provided for after-school activities.

Discipline procedures provide for students staying after school for some offenses and getting suspended for serious matters. At the end of the suspension period, the student must come to school with a parent. As of January, 30 students have been suspended during the current school year.

The school has a Racial/Ethnic Student Council (RESC). It was formed by an election among the students, and it holds regular meetings which the Headmaster attends.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"The technical areas are very good." • "The building was poorly constructed." • "The school is strict but not strict enough." • "You can feel a slight tension." • "The school lunches are horrible." • "You really learn about medical things, aviation, computers."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

There is a Parent Council (REPC) which meets every month (2nd Tuesday). The Headmaster attends the meetings.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"It has more to offer than other schools." • "Lots of homework, subjects very interesting." • "You have to make an appointment, instead of just being able to go up to the school when you want." • "I'm too far away to go to the meetings." • "Children are allowed to pick the field they want to excel in." • "It has very high standards."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

The Mario Umana Harbor School is still involved in changes from the original plans to be a middle school to a magnet six (6) year school. It is not a test school; students are not required to submit to a screening or interviewing process before entering. As a result, the school has many students who were either sent to the school to balance the enrollment or who chose the school without a complete understanding of its scientific and technological objectives. This accounts for some of the disciplinary problems. This new science and technology school is important to Boston. For the school to keep its high standards of achievement, some means of measuring the capabilities of incoming students is necessary.

46-431 O - 80 - 64

West Roxbury High

WEST ROXBURY HIGH SCHOOL
1205 V.F.W. PARKWAY
WEST ROXBURY, MASSACHUSETTS 02132
Telephone: 323-4866

Donald Pellegrini, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 1420
White: 577; Black: 794:
Other Minority: 49

A District 3 school with a Magnet Cooperative Industrial Program

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

West Roxbury High School is a new four year comprehensive high school housed in a unique, contemporary building, constructed to organize the school into four self-contained "houses", each with its own section of the building and administered by its own "housemaster".

The "houses", with their smaller groups of students, create a more family-like atmosphere. This provides the housemaster, the counselors, and the faculty with an opportunity to know the students on a more personal basis, and it enables each student to receive more individual attention and help.

The modern design of the school, with carpeting throughout, is very conducive to a quiet, restful environment for learning. The pace is easy and relaxed, and the tone i one of mutual interest and concern for all in the school family.

MAGNET PROGRAM: West Roxbury High School offers a city-wide magnet program in Agri Business, specializing in conservation, animal science, ornamental horticulture, flori culture, laboratory animal care, environmental landscape, and agriculture mechanics. (For more information see the West Roxbury description in the "Cooperative Industrial Programs" section of this book.)

An Honors Program is available for academically talented students in the College Preparatory course, with an emphasis in English, History, Science and Math.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM: The school has a bilingual program which consists of classes conducted in the Greek language. It serves over fifty Greek students. Courses taught in Greek include: Biology, Civic Education, English-as-a-Second-Language, Health, U. S. History, and Theater Arts.

COURSES: Curriculum offerings are comprehensive and programs for both Business and College-bound students provide a well-developed range of options.

Each student is required to take four years of English and Physical Education and one year of Career Exploration, Earth Science, Developmental Reading, Biology, Health Education, and U.S. History. Three years of Math and/or Bookkeeping and Typing are also required.

A seventh-period optional activities schedule is offered to all students and includes thirty-two clubs, sports, special tutorial programs, school newspaper, and recreational events. Bus transportation is provided and many of the students take advantage of these opportunities.

"Career Exploration" is required of all ninth graders, and each student, through a series of simulation experiences is able to explore career options in: Business-Distribution-Government related employment, Foods-Home Services-Health related employment, and Manufacturing employment. All students are familiarized with the Massachusetts Occupational Information System (MOIS) in the computer room and many are trained in its use. Visiting speakers from outside agencies, a "career day", and emphasis on job-hunting skills for twelfth graders are other features which round out the school's career program.

"Special Needs": Approximately 197 students are served by two Evaluation Team Coordinators. Of these students, 31 are in 3 separate special needs classes. The building is equipped with ramps and an elevator which easily accomodates the 13 students who require wheelchairs.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: Under "Chapter 636", the school received $38,224.00 in funding for 1978-79. This has enabled the development of remedial reading programs, a Library Aide position, and Art and Graphics resources.

Boston College is paired with the school and together they have developed a tutorial program, a career awareness program, a college readiness program, a school profile and newsletters.

The school's business partner has been the New England Merchants' Bank. This collaboration has resulted in: Career Days, a reading/math tutorial program, consumer education workshops, instruction in job-hunting techniques, computer programming, an internship program, a speaker program, a "Close-up" program (concerning involvement in government), field trips, and the publication of a booklet, "A Guide For Career Planning".

There are a variety of alternative education programs open to students. These include Another Course to College (ACC) and "project Space". There are also flexible Campus Programs including Work Study programs and Human Services courses which enable students to acquire the occupational skills and attitudes necessary to succeed in the world-of-work.

The school has a relationship with a number of community agencies and uses their services for referrals and evaluations.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: In 1978, 264 students graduated from West Roxbury High School, with 76 going to college, 6 enro-ling in technical school, 15 going into business training programs, 14 joining military services, and 112 entering employment. Forty-eight of the graduating students received scholarships for further study.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

We are a comprehensive high school with a total population of approximately 1400 students. In addition to being a district high school, we at West Roxbury High School offer an Agricultural-Business Magnet Program for students throughout the city. In keeping with the proud tradition of academic excellence at West Roxbury High School, we have also instituted an Honors Program for those students with high motivation and above average skills.

We, the faculty and students of West Roxbury High School, are aware of the many challenges of today's complex society and we are excited knowing that we are meeting many of those needs with our varied curriculum and programs.

FACILITIES

West Roxbury, completed in 1975, is one of the newest, most modern facilities in Boston. The structure consists of 6 floors on one side of the building and 4 floors on the other side.

Since it is a "community school" all of its facilities are open to the public for use on an "extended-day" basis, usually mid-afternoon through evening.

There are 6 science labs, an art area, a greenhouse, resource rooms, 4 language labs, 3 typing rooms, a business machine room, woodworking and metal shops, an auditorium, a gym, a pool and a cafeteria. The school has a library, with the full-time services of a librarian.

TEACHER COMMENTS: *"A good atmosphere for learning."* • *"Facilities are new and Modern; they are well-kept compared to other city schools."* • *"The agricultural Dept. has an excellent program."* • *"Its multi-thematic, varied curriculum, with a relatively happy faculty and peaceful setting, is conducive to those students that truly seek quality education."*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The Headmaster meets with the Student Council once a month and has an "open door" policy with this body. Two representatives are elected to the Council from each homeroom and the group meets weekly. The Racial/Ethnic Student Council is included in the Council, but it meets separately if there are any racial matters to be handled.

STUDENT COMMENTS: *"It is a nice, well balanced school."* • *"We have a good teaching staff, and they take time with the kids that have a hard time learning English."* • *"We need more minority teachers."* • *"It is a clean school, and they offer a lot."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The school has both a Racial/Ethnic Parent Council (REPC) and a Home & School Association. The REPC is very active. Both groups contribute to the life of the school.

PARENT COMMENTS: *"It has an excellent teaching staff and we've had a chance to meet with each teacher and the opportunity to communicate with them is always there--all it takes is a phone call."* • *"They need a bilingual person in Spanish."* • *"The spirit of the school is strong. My children are very involved in the activities--it holds their interest and teachers react with enthusiasm along with the students."* • *"We need transportation for parents."* • *"I've felt very welcome in the school."*

RESEARCHER COMMENT

Upon entering the school you are impressed by a feeling of pride and school spirit. The entire faculty and administration expresses concern for meeting the needs of all the students. The special activities period is the highlight of each day.

The extensive use of the building can cause problems of maintenance and upkeep. The remote location of the school makes it difficult for many parents to participate in parent activities and to visit the school to discuss the progress of their sons and daughters.

← ANOTHER COURSE TO COLLEGE ↑

special programs

↓ ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER

Another Course to College

ANOTHER COURSE TO COLLEGE (ACC)
PETER FANEUIL SCHOOL
60 JOY STREET
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02114
Telephone: 742-5711

Ruthann E. Kelley, Acting Director
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 190
White: 97; Black: 84;
Other Minority: 14

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM: Another Course to College (ACC) is a two-year College Preparatory Course for 11th and 12th grade students (from any Boston Public High School) who meet admission requirements. These requirements are: a student must have a minimum of 42 Boston school credits, qualifying them to be high school juniors; a student must express a desire to attend college; a student must expect and be willing to do a great amount of homework. Students from the 3 "exam schools", Boston Latin Academy, Boston Latin, and Boston Technical High, are not eligible for this program. Students are assigned to a "home high school" but spend their entire school year at ACC. This program was designed to meet the needs of students who have not had previous College Preparatory experience or who have been involved in a college course but needed more, individualized academic attention. The theme of intensive academic studies is implemented by the staff, with support services from the University of Massachusetts/Boston.

The guidance department provides regular counseling services for students thus reinforcing the College Preparatory theme. Students also have an opportunity to enroll in courses at U.Mass. and to use the Harbor Campus facilities, thereby exposing them to a college atmosphere.

COURSES: The Core Curriculum is entirely designed to prepare students for college. It is taught by Boston Public School teachers who are, at their request, on assignment from their "home" school. The required subject areas for each student are: English, Math, Science, Language and Social Studies. Classes are not divided by grade level with the exception of English, therefore, students may choose courses according to their interests and abilities. The program has no formal bilingual class; however, a U.Mass. professor meets 4 days a week and tutors students whose native language is not English. At report card time, in addition to letter grades, written comments are provided on a student's progress.

"Career Exploration": Career Exploratory and Work/Study programs are not available at ACC, but part of the junior guidance component explores the career decision-making process and provides related educational information.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: ACC received Chapter 636 monies from the State Dept. of Education which provided for a Massachusetts Occupational Information System (MOIS) and funded half the guidance program, which includes a guidance counselor, vocational tests and career interest inventories. ACC staff provide tutorial and remedial assistance for all students.

The program's university partner is U.Mass-Boston, which provides guidance and secretarial services.

Community agencies that participate in the program are: School Volunteers for Boston, Harvard Upward Bound, Brandeis Upward Bound, and Bridge.

As part of ACC's guidance program, a counselor meets with each student once a week and provides assistance in course selection, orientation, career counseling, personal counseling, and some informal job placement.

A nurse and doctor spend a brief time once a week in the building. ACC does not provide a breakfast or a lunch program, but students have access to local eateries.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: Ninety-seven students completed the program in 1978. Of these, 70 went to college, 3 entered technical schools, 4 entered business training, 4 entered military service, and 11 entered employment. Fifty of these students received scholarships.

DIRECTOR'S STATEMENT

A.C.C. was developed to meet the need for an intensive college preparatory program to address the needs of two specific groups of students. The first is a group who, having reached the midpoint of their high school careers, decide they want a college education. Often these students feel that they cannot make the transition in their home high school because of any number of reasons. The second group is students who are already in a college course but for any number of reasons are unhappy with it.

We believe that a small student body, a talented group of educators, and a totally college-oriented environment is the answer to the needs of many of these students.

FACILITIES: A.C.C. is housed in the former Peter Faneuil School, which was built in 1909. It is located on the North side of Beacon Hill and is near MBTA lines. The setting offers many opportunities for students to use local museums, libraries, art galleries, theatres, and university facilities. However, the building is old and lacks some physical conveniences, including a school library, science labs, gymnasium and cafeteria. Private space is also needed for individual counseling. Future plans call for ACC to have access of the entire building, which is presently shared with other programs.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES: Students participate in sports and other extra-curricular activities at their home schools. There is no formal student organization at ACC but students determine courses and tutorial arrangements and assist in evaluating teachers. In addition to this, students participate in a Multi-Cultural Club, which has 25 members that celebrate a different culture each month. The Choral Society is also very active. Students are responsible for their own transportation for after-school activities. STUDENT COMMENTS: *"Students who have graduated from this program have all agreed that it has been a great asset to their growth and development."* * *"If you want to get away from the hustle and bustle of big schools come here, but have the motivation to learn."* * *"Friendship & concern among faculty & students is not uncommon here."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT: ACC has no REPC or Home & School Association. However, a Parent Council meets monthly. The parents are involved with organizing fund-raising events for the yearbook, the prom, and school rings. PARENT COMMENTS: *"Students stick together and help one another."* * *"Physically there is a need for more space."* * *"The guidance department is great."* * *"The school makes you feel like something special."*

EDITORIAL COMMENT

A.C.C.'s educational philosphy and objectives are generally met because students and staff have a sincere desire to attend the school. Parents understand and support the academic theme, along with the director, who works constantly to maintain the success of the program. Students who are willing to make an academic commitment will find ACC an attractive program.

English Language Center

ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER
ABRAHAM LINCOLN SCHOOL
152 ARLINGTON STREET
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02116
Telephone: 426-2276

William J. Mallen, Administrator
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 362
White: 135; Black: 114;
Other Minority: 113

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM: The program of the Center is focused on teaching its students to read, write and speak English. All students are initially tested and interviewed to determine their levels of ability in English. Then a student is placed into one of 6 levels of instruction. The program is flexible and classes are open-ended, so a student may move to a more advanced level at any time s/he is ready. Most of the students are at the Center for about a year before leaving to work or to attend another school.

There are three basic age groupings of students at the Center, each with a somewhat distinct program. One group consists of students aged 13 to 16. Being of mandatory high school age, they are enrolled in the high school course; all subjects are taught using English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) materials and methods. The Center has no "12th grade" level; approximately 90% of the students eventually transfer to regular high school programs. The second group consists of students aged 16 to 20. These students may study only English if they choose; however, they are encouraged to take whatever subjects they may need to complete a high school course. The third group is the students aged 21 and older. These students primarily study English, though they may also take courses in other subjects. Many of these students attend the Center in order to prepare for specific goals, such as college admission, license examinations for certain trades, or citizenship.

COURSES: The subjects taught as part of the high school course are English, Science, Math, U.S. Geography, U.S. History, U.S. Government, Multicultural Awareness & Physical Education. Career Awareness is also taught, and Art is offered as an elective. Part of each day, students study spoken English in a Language Laboratory period. There is a course on Citizenship taught to the post-high school students. The English Language instruction is generally divided into 3 levels: Beginning, Intermediate and Advanced. Students are taught skills such as pronunciation, conversation, vocabulary, reading, writing, spelling and grammar.

"Career Exploration": Career information is provided through the Career Awareness course, through guest speakers & through printed materials (written in ESL fashion).

"Special Needs": The Center has 14 students with identified special needs. There is one special education class at the Center. Coordination of special needs (Chapter 766) services is the responsibility of the part-time guidance counselor.

OTHER PROGRAMS AND SERVICES: The Center has received $4,800 in State Chapter 636 funds this year. This has been used to support its university pairing with Emmanuel College, which provides teachers' aides and individual & small group tutoring. Using a federal grant ($2,700) from ESAA, the Center is running a program of integrating new minorities through ESL courses in four subject areas.

Through the Flexible Campus program, 26 of the students are currently taking different types of skill training at various agencies and work sites.

Student field trips are a regular feature of the Center Program. The Center uses the services of a number of community agencies. Among these are Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC), Work Incentive Program (WIN), Lumen Vitae, the Multilingual Library, Holy Trinity ESL, Little City Hall & South End Neighborhood Action Program (SNAP).

Guidance services are provided by a counselor on a half-time basis. Most of this time is spent with the students taking the high school course. A nurse comes to the Center 3 days a week, and a doctor visits daily. The South Cove Community Health Center is nearby for other needed health services. Breakfast and lunch are available.

POST GRADUATE INFORMATION: The Center does not grant high school diplomas. Many students, however, are high school graduates when they enter. Of those who attended the Center last year, 42 went to college (18 received scholarships), 7 entered technical schools, 6 went into business training and 2 entered military service.

ADMINISTRATOR'S STATEMENT

The English Language Center, a conveniently located magnet school, is devoted to the direct method of teaching English to high school and adult immigrants and immigrants who want to learn the language. A full-time day high and post-high school, open-ended, ungraded program is offered by a specially-trained, caring staff. Stress is placed on speaking, reading, writing and computational skills. Students are not isolated by language or race, but study intensively and in harmony on six levels, after initial interviews and tests. Courses include: 2 language laboratories, history, geography, government, 5 math sections, science, physical education, career and multicultural awareness. Students are welcome from September to June. Appropriate academic credit is granted and universally accepted.

FACILITIES: The English Language Center is housed in the Abraham Lincoln School building, which was constructed in 1916. The building has 4 floors. Among its features are a science lab, an Art room, a resource room, 2 language labs, an auditorium and a small cafeteria. The Center has been seeking to develop a library. Physical improvements that have been requested for the building are: painting, refurbishing windows, and installing ramps and an elevator (for access for handicapped people).

STUDENT ACTIVITIES: The Center has a Student Council of 18 members, elected from each homeroom. The Council meets monthly and makes recommendations on course additions and other improvements. The Administrator attends the meetings on invitation. The extracurricular activity at the Center is the Photography Club. STUDENT COMMENTS: *"It is very interesting to be in this school. There are students from all parts of the world." * "It is a very good program." * "I would like to have the books to study at home." * "It's a quiet school, no fighting." * "Lunch is too expensive." * "I would like a library here."*

PARENT INVOLVEMENT: The Center has an Advisory Council which meets about 3 times a year. This Council is comprised of parents who volunteer, students who are elected, and representatives of social agencies which provide services to Center students.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The student body at the Center represents 57 countries, 32 different native languages, and a wide range of ages. For all this diversity, one is especially impressed to find an atmosphere so harmonious & friendly. The faculty and administration are experienced in their field and seem very concerned for the well-being of the students. In order to enhance the Center's ability to serve its students, the guidance staff should be increased, there should be a coordinator assigned for special needs services, and the resources should be provided to establish and operate a library.

Occupational Resource Center

THE PILOT OCCUPATIONAL RESOURCE CENTER (ORC)
240 HEATH STREET
JAMAICA PLAIN, MASSACHUSETTS 02130
Telephone: 566-4425

Frank G. Power, Jr., Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 636
White: 117; Black: 292;
Other Minority: 117

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Pilot Occupational Resource Center (ORC) is a vocational education facility offering half-day skills training and career exploratory courses in Allied Health and Service Occupations. Enrollment is open to high school students, out-of-school youth, and adults who reside in Boston. High school students continue to take their academic subjects at their "home" high school and are released for three periods a day in order to take the ORC skills training and career exploratory courses. Programs emphasize individualized instruction. Applications are accepted throughout the year. The school maintains a policy of open-enrollment toward all applicants, as space permits. Round-trip transportation for the ORC programs is provided for high school students.

COURSES: Courses are offered in the following occupational areas: Cosmetology, Fashion Design, Culinary Arts, Health Services, Medical Secretarial, and Bilingual Business Skills. Most programs run for one year with exceptions noted in the course descriptions. Major features of these programs are summarized below.

Cosmetology: Upon the completion of 1000 hours of class work, the student is awarded a certificate which makes him or her eligible to take the State Board exams. This course normally takes two and one-half years to complete. Spanish bilingual instruction is available.

Fashion Design: Courses include the study of textiles, power machine technology, industrial garment assembly, clothing construction, custom dressmaking, tailoring, and pattern-making. Graduates of this program qualify for entry-level positions in the garment industry, in fashion coordination, and in boutiques.

Culinary Arts: "Commercial Foods" is a two-year course which teaches the basics of cooking, the use and care of equipment, buying and storing food, sanitation, and menus during the first year. The second year includes gourmet cooking, how to set up a buffet, the preparation of hors d'oeuvres, baking, and meat cutting. The Restaurant Management Course teaches sanitation techniques, storeroom and stewarding operations, Business Law as it relates to the food industry, cost analysis and menu planning, and basic supervision. Spanish bilingual instruction is offered.

Allied Health Services: Courses are offered to students who are interested in becoming Hospital Assistants, Health Aides, and Medical Secretaries. Clinical experience is provided in affiliated hospitals: The Veteran's Administration (in Jamaica Plain), Children's Hospital, Boston City Hospital, and University Hospital. Students often receive job offers from the hospitals where they receive their clinical training. Spanish bilingual instruction is offered for Nurse's Assistants.

Bilingual Business Skills: Provides courses geared to training typists, secretaries, and key-punch operators, for students whose primary language is Spanish. Emphasis is placed on increasing the students' awareness of opportunities in business and office occupations.

Special Needs: A Special Needs Occupational Education team is studying the possibilities for adapting courses to accomodate students eligible for 766 services. A Food Service program is offered to 6 Bilingual Special Needs students.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Guidance services are provided in English and Spanish to assist students in clarifying occupational goals and in selecting courses. Job development assistance is provided by teachers and guidance personnel. Last year, eighty percent (80%) of those who completed their programs were placed in jobs.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

"The Pilot Occupational Resource Center is the Flexible Campus Occupational Program for all students in grades 10, 11, and 12 in the Boston Public Schools. The school offers skilled training and career courses in Allied Health and Human Services. Half-day programs in Cosmetology, Fashion Design, Culinary Arts, Health Services, Medical Secretary and Bilingual Business Skills are available. We cordially invite students and parents to investigate the many educational opportunities offered. If you would like to learn more about the programs at the Occupational Resource Center, information may be obtained through the Flexible Campus Coordinator at any high school. Adults may contact the Occupational Resource Center directly."

EDITORIAL COMMENT

There are many positive features of the pilot ORC which deserve mention: the empathetic faculty, the strong emphasis on guidance and job placement, the flexibility which allows students to change courses, individualized instruction, and an opportunity to learn marketable skills which are useful to the student even if he or she decides not to seek employment in the area of training. However, the ORC, now housed in the old Jefferson School, is burdened by the poor physical condition of its building. Another problem is that most course offerings are in traditional sex-stereotyped occupations (as the disproportionate female enrollment demonstrates). Training for skilled trades and crafts is not offered. Presumably these problems will be overcome when the pilot ORC programs are incorporated into the Hubert Humphrey Occupational Resource Center, now under construction and scheduled to open by September, 1980.

HUBERT HUMPHREY OCCUPATIONAL RESOURCE CENTER (ORC)

The Hubert Humphrey Occupational Resource Center, located next to Madison Park High School, is presently under construction. This vocational educational facility will probably be fully operational by September, 1980 and will offer career exploratory courses and advanced skill level training in a wide variety of occupational areas. The ORC is planned as a non-residential school, in that no student will be enrolled on a full-time basis. Students will remain enrolled at their home high school for academic subjects and will be transported to the ORC for vocational training.

The philosophy of the ORC is to provide individualized competency-based instruction in a cluster or family of occupations, requiring common skills. This provides the student with a broad range of job skills. Training will be offered in occupational areas which the U.S. Department of Labor and the First National Bank of Boston consider to be the employment opportunities for this area. The clusters which will be offered are: Business/Office Occupations; Personal Services Occupations; Metal Fabrications; Printing/Graphic Arts; Vehicle Maintenance/Power Mechanics; Health Services Occupations; Laboratory/Technical Science; Woodworking/Construction; Plumbing; Communications/Media; Electricity; Electronics. Students who elect one cluster as an area of specialization will be permitted to study related subjects in other clusters.

We must emphasize however that these programs are still in the curriculum development stage and there may be substantive changes in the offerings due to changes in supply and demand in the labor market. It is important for parents and students to keep informed of developments in the ORC planning process so that they may consider the options available at the ORC when planning for career education.

WOODWORKING/DORCHESTER

Cooperative Industrial & Magnet Vocational Programs

BUSINESS MAGNET/EAST BOSTON

AUTOMOTIVE/BRIGHTON

INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The City-Wide Educational Coalition (CWEC) decided to focus on the existing vocational education programs for two reasons: 1) there is consensus that there is a need for such programs and 2) most parents and students lack adequate information about the quality content of what is offered. A frequently quoted figure is that 70% of Boston's High School graduates do not go to college, technical schools, or business schools. The high rate of unemployment of youth between the ages of 16 and 21 is attributed to inadequate preparation for the world of work in terms of job skills, attitudes, and good work habits. The objective of vocational or career education is to provide high school graduates with saleable skills and an awareness of what is likely to be expected of them on the job. The purpose of this project was to determine if the vocational education programs in Boston are indeed attaining this objective.

A questionnaire was administered to the coordinators of vocational education throughout the city. Questionnaire items covered the training content, equipment and facilities, calibre of instructional personnel, job placement and follow-up data, and the degree to which the program interrelates with the comprehensive high school in which it is housed. All coordinators were interviewed at length by our vocational education specialist. Each training facility was toured. Administrative and managerial staff from the central administrative offices and vocational teachers were interviewed. Descriptive profiles and editorial comments were drawn from the results of the interviews.

The cooperative vocational education programs are open to students from all parts of the city. The student spends alternate weeks in the classroom studying academic and trade-related subjects and in the shop learning the skills and procedures of the chosen trade. Advanced students are permitted to accept paid supervised work assignments in local industry during their shop week. Through this mode of learning, the student has the opportunity to acquire the equivalent of one year of work experience and three years of training while completing the requirements for a high school diploma. In accordance with requirements specified by the State Division of Occupational Education, all vocational education teachers have solid work experience in the trade that they are teaching. The overall objective of these programs is to produce high school graduates who are qualified for immediate employment in specific trades. School Department officials expect that these programs will admit ninth grade students for the first time in September 1979. As of this writing, this policy has not been implemented. Present eighth grade students should check with the School Department about the availability of ninth grade vocational education.

Students interested in enrolling in any of the cooperative industrial programs or in the East Boston Magnet Business program must select the specific program on the Application for Assignment form, and not merely the school in which it is housed. A student enrolled in any of these programs who wishes to transfer into another cooperative program or to a college preparatory course must secure a transfer from the Department of Implementation. Therefore, the vocational education student does have less flexibility than a student in a comprehensive high school.

This section of the High School Guide is one resource to consult when choosing a high school or a career education program. Prospective students and their parents are urged to speak to currently-enrolled students and to program graduates to hear their opinions about the programs. If at all possible, a visit to the program being considered should be scheduled. Serious thought should be given to the choice of a vocational education program as it is not easy to obtain a programmatic transfer once enrolled. All programs admit male and female students. We have included enrollment data by sex for your information.

AGRI-BUSINESS

WEST ROXBURY HIGH SCHOOL
1205 V.F.W. PARKWAY
WEST ROXBURY, MASSACHUSETTS
Telephone: 323-4866

Edmund Sprissler, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 135
White: 58; Black: 64; Other: 13
Male: 84; Female: 51

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The city-wide magnet vocational Agri-Business program located at West Roxbury High School, accepts 9th and 10th grade students. Courses are offered in the fundamentals of agriculture and horticulture with emphasis in the following areas: Conservation, Animal Science, Ornamental Horticulture, Floriculture, Laboratory Animal Care, Environmental Landscape, and Agriculture Mechanics. The aim of this program is two-fold: to provide skills development to students who plan to work immediately after graduation, and to provide a foundation for further study.

COURSES: The curriculum of the Agri-Business Program is unique in that the students are fully integrated into the comprehensive high school for their academic course-work. A student elects either the business or college preparation course. The course-work is divided evenly between academic and vocational subjects. Students are expected to work part-time during the school year in a job which is related to Agri-Business. In addition, they work full-time for 11 weeks during the summer. The summer work experience is supervised by the Coordinator/Director of the program. During peak seasons for flowers and plants, such as Easter and Memorial Day, some students may be released for temporary employment in nurseries and florist shops. For the past two years, students have produced poinsettias and have sold them within the school at Christmas-time. This simulated business experience provided students with an understanding of florist operations. Agri-Business is extremely popular and is presently over-subscribed. However, applications are being accepted for next year. The popularity of the program is attributed to several factors: increasing concern about ecology; interest in caring for animals; the growth of ornamental horticulture; and the exceptional facilities at West Roxbury High School, such as the greenhouse, the land laboratory, and the animal laboratory. Agri-Business students frequently take field trips to the Arnold Arboretum & to Franklin Park. A Flexible Campus Program has been developed in conjunction with Boston College at Hale Reservation in Chestnut Hill. This deer park is a natural laboratory for conservation activities. Agri-Business was formerly the Agriculture Program at Jamaica Plain High School. The curriculum was revamped in 1972 to reflect the changes in employment opportunities which had taken place. Increased emphasis has been placed on floriculture and ornamental horticulture, as opposed to the former emphasis on agricultural production and distribution. There has been no turnover in the teaching staff in seven years. The faculty take continuing education courses which have been developed specifically for the Massachusetts Vocational Agriculture Teachers Association. There are sixteen Special Needs students who take one or two courses in the Agri-Business Program. There are no bilingual courses offered.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: The Coordinator/Director works very closely with the high school guidance counselors in providing career counseling. Because one-half of the Agri-Business students are enrolled in the Business Course and the other half are enrolled in the College Preparatory Course, it is essential to identify those students who have the interest and ability to further their studies in agriculture-related fields early in the program. With proper guidance in the course selection process, a student improves his or her chances to be admitted to the Stockbridge School of Agriculture or the Essex County Agricultural Institute.

College majors related to Agri-Business are Agriculture, Botany, Animal Science, and Landscape Architecture. Of the 18 students who graduated in 1978, 5 went to college, 2 went to business school, 2 went into the military, 6 obtained jobs related to agri-business, and 3 went to work in jobs unrelated to agri-business.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"Do you.....enjoy working outdoors?
enjoy having pets and caring for them?
enjoy taking care of plants?

Would you like to work toward a career in Landscape Architecture, Animal Research, Greenhouse Operations, or Retail Florist Operations? A good start toward answering these questions is to investigate the Agri-Business Natural Resources Environmental Education Program at West Roxbury High School.

The program has many Agri-Business specialities. However, the curriculum is designed to meet the needs of both the vocational student and the student who wishes to enter an agricultural college after graduation. To fulfill both needs, the program contains academic and vocational subjects.

Being a student at West Roxbury High School, you will be an integral part of the comprehensive school program. Many club activities, along with a complete sports program, are offered to complement your education.

Agri-Business is "in" at West Roxbury High School."

EDITORIAL COMMENT

Agri-Business is the only Cooperative Industrial Program whose current enrollment exceeds its authorized maximum capacity. The popularity of Agri-Business can be largely attributed to facets of the curriculum structure which are unique to vocational programs in Boston.

- the traditional gap between vocational and academic learning has been bridged by fully integrating the vocational students into college and business courses for their academic work.
- the program is structured to allow the student to explore a variety of career areas during 9th and 10th grade. Specialized courses are taken in grades 10, 11, and 12.
- the diverse occupational opportunities, such as agricultural mechanics and floriculture, within the Agri-Business field appeal to a broad spectrum of students.
- the subjects included in the program have recreational applications.
- students acquire supervised work experience in the summer rather than during the school year. Therefore, the work experience does not prevent the student from participating in extra-curricular activities or sports.

In short, the strength of this vocational program is that it does not isolate its students from the rest of the student body. The percentage of students who go to Agricultural College or work in the field of Agri-Business is high. However, it should be noted that many jobs within Agri-Business are seasonal and do not offer exceptional opportunity for career advancement and increased earnings.

WOODWORKING-UPHOLSTERY-FURNITURE

DORCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL
9 PEACEVALE ROAD
DORCHESTER, MASSACHUSETTS 02124
Telephone: 436-2555

John Timmons, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 91
White: 43; Black: 43; Other: 5
Male: 75; Female: 16

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Magnet Cooperative Architectural Woodworking, Upholstering, and Furniture Finishing Programs are located at Dorchester High School, and are open to tenth and eleventh grade students from throughout the city. As of this writing, there is a strong possibility that ninth grade students will be admitted for the next school year. Interested students should contact the School Department to see if this policy has been implemented. A student selects one of the three related, yet distinct, occupational areas. The objective of these programs is to provide the student with practical training and work experience so that upon graduation he or she is qualified to work in the fields of woodworking, upholstery, or furniture finishing.

COURSES: In the Architectural Woodworking Program, formerly known as the "Cabinet-making Program", alternate weeks are spent in the classroom, where students are taught academic and related vocational subjects, and in the cabinet shop, where students learn milling operations, and the fitting and assembly of furniture parts. The academic component includes the following courses: English, Social Studies, Related Math, Related Science, Drafting, Shop Process, Physical Education, and Health. "Related" academic instruction is essential to the woodworking trade because cabinet-makers must be able to read blueprints and must have sound mathematical ability in order to do layout work. Tenth grade woodworking students spend their shop week in the Bench Room, where they learn to use hand and power tools and how to operate hand and power-fed woodworking machines. They learn to assemble and fit the furniture parts milled by eleventh grade students. The Mill Room is equipped with twenty-six woodworking machines which are comparable to those used in industry. Eleventh grade students spend their shop week learning to maintain and operate a variety of woodworking machines. They also learn to verify the cuts, angles, and dimensions by using gauges, squares, rules, and templates. Twelfth grade students spend some time in the Bench Room refining their fitting and assembly skills, before being placed in a supervised cooperative work site.

The coursework for the Furniture Finishing Program is divided evenly into classwork and shop components. Classes are structured on an alternate-week basis. Classwork consists of the required academic subjects: English, Related Math, Related Science, Social Studies, Health, Physical Education, and related instruction in drafting and shop process. Tenth and eleventh grade students spend their shop week learning how to repair and refinish old furniture and how to finish the new furniture which is made by the Architectural Woodworking students in the Cabinet Shop. Some of the skills learned are stripping old furniture finishes, matching stains, and the operation of spraying equipment. Advanced eleventh grade students and most twelfth grade students are encouraged to accept cooperative work assignments in local furniture repair shops during the shop week. These work sites are supervised by the Placement Coordinator.

The Upholstery Program also operates on an alternate-week basis, with students spending one week in the classroom and the next week in the shop. The classwork is essentially the same as in the other two programs, except that Drafting and Shop Process are geared toward the upholstery trade.

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During the shop week, tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade students are assigned to the large Upholstery Room, where they are taught how to upholster new custom furniture and how to re-upholster old furniture. The furniture used for training purposes is brought in by members of the community, who pay for the materials used. Students become skilled in the entire upholstery process, including how to operate industrial sewing machines and how to use the air-staplers which are used to apply the outer fabric covering. Advanced eleventh grade students and twelfth grade students are placed in jobs in upholstery shops during their shop week. These work sites are monitored by the Placement Coordinator to ensure that the student is performing satisfactorily.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: The Placement Coordinator and the Coordinator/Director provide guidance services to the coop students. Of the twenty-six seniors who graduated from the Woodworking Program in 1978, seventeen were placed in cabinet-making jobs; one went to college; and two entered the military.

Of the nine students who completed the Furniture Finishing Program, five were placed in that field, one went to college, and two went into the military.

Of the five students who completed the Upholstery Program, three were placed in upholstery shops and one went to college.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"Three separate Vocational Trades open to all students are offered at Dorchester High School (Grades 10, 11, and 12) - Architectural Woodworking, Upholstery and Hardwood Finishing. They are designed not only to give the students the basic training and skill required to obtain a job in one of the aforementioned trades, but also to give them the related knowledge which will help them to become department heads or shop superintendents. Many of our graduates are operating their own shops in their chosen field.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Architectural Woodworking, Furniture Finishing, and Upholstery students participate fully in the activities at Dorchester High School. Some examples of this participation are: Physical Education classes are shared with other students; Flexible Campus activities are allowed during the academic week; the Vice-President of the school's Student Council is a cooperative industrial student; and nearly 90% of the players on the Hockey Team are cooperative industrial students.

Concern over job opportunities in the three trades offered at Dorchester High School was voiced by the writers of the Unified Plan for Occupational and Vocational Education based on data contained in the First National Bank Occupational Forecast. However, the placement rate for the Dorchester programs has always been high, presumably because the high quality of training there gives its graduates a competitive edge.

AUTOMOTIVE

BRIGHTON HIGH SCHOOL
25 WARREN STREET
BRIGHTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02135
Telephone: 782-6520

Dominic Bruno, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 200
White: 83; Black: 96; Other: 21
Male: 186; Female: 14

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Magnet Cooperative Auto Mechanics Program at Brighton High School aims to train students in all phases of automobile repair: tires, lubrication, tune-up, front-end alignment, steering, electrical, air-conditioning, brake & exhaust systems, and engine rebuilding. The program accepts 10th and 11th grade students on a city-wide basis. As of this writing, there is a strong possibility that 9th grade students will be admitted for the next school year. Interested students should contact the School Department to see if this policy has been implemented.

COURSES: Students spend alternate weeks in the classroom and in the automotive shop, which simulates the work environment of an actual auto repair shop. Subjects offered in the classroom include: Mechanical Drawing, Garage Management, Shop Process, and Automotive Spanish, as well as the core academic requirements. The Shop Process instructor teaches Automotive Theory. During the shop week, 10th grade students observe the instructor and more advanced students doing repair work on automobiles which have been brought in by students, faculty, and residents of the area. In grade 11, students perform automobile repair work under the direct supervision of an instructor. Advanced 11th and 12th grade students spend their shop week working under the supervision of an instructor or on cooperative assignment to a local garage, depending on their level of proficiency. Students who have cooperative work assignments are paid at least the minimum wage. The placement coordinator monitors the work sites in order to evaluate the students' training experience, and to ensure that the students' training plan is followed. The automotive shop is spacious and well-equipped and provides the student with the opportunity to become skilled with the tools and equipment which he or she can expect to use on the job. Sixteen Special Needs students have been mainstreamed into this program by providing two extra periods of academic work for them each week. Students are also taught to maintain the shop as they would be expected to on a real job.

The Coordinator/Director praised his teachers, seventy percent (70%) of whom are Brighton High School Automotive Program graduates. They attend General Motors courses each summer in order to keep abreast of technological developments in the industry.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Academic, career, and personal counseling is provided by the teachers, the placement coordinator, and the Coordinator/Director. Most students are offered permanent employment by their cooperative work employers. Of the 62 seniors from last year's graduating class, 56 were placed in automotive-related jobs, 4 went to college, and 2 went into the military. The most recent follow-up study that was done for this program indicated that eighty percent (80%) of the graduates were working in automotive or automotive-related careers four (4) years after graduation. The employment outlook for skilled auto mechanics in the Boston area is good, according to the First National Bank Occupational Forecast study.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"The Automotive Course at Brighton High School is a Cooperative-Industrial Course designed to prepare students for careers in the automotive industry. Students spend one full week in shop learning specific "hands-on" technical skills and one week in the classroom learning the related academic skills necessary for good work habits.

Grade XI and XII students who have learned both the academic and technical skills of the automotive trade are usually (if jobs are available) placed in automotive shops during their shop week and are paid as mechanic's helpers.

Career opportunities in the automotive trade include: tires, lubrication, light and heavy duty repair mechanics, tune-up, electrical, front-end, steering, transmission, brake and exhaust specialists, shop foreman, service salesman and general service managers.

Related career opportunities include: aircraft mechanics, diesel mechanics, automotive insurance collision appraisers, small engine mechanics, automotive parts and accessories salesmen and automotive machinists."

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The automotive program at Brighton High School is the largest of the Cooperative Industrial Programs and is considered to be the most successful in the city. This assessment is based on the high percentage of students who are placed in jobs, as well as the high percentage of graduates who remain and succeed in the automotive field. The coordinator relates very well to students, teachers, and sponsoring employers. The automotive program has been a source of pride to Brighton High School over the years. The editor found the student and teacher morale to be noticeably better than at most other vocational programs. The high level of morale can be attributed to the programs reputation for excellence, the security of knowing that good employment opportunities await the skilled mechanic, and the fact that students are well-represented in extra-curricular activities and sports and are truly an integral part of Brighton High School.

BUSINESS

EAST BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL
86 WHITE STREET
EAST BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02128
Telephone: 567-5216

Anna L. Fisher, Coordinator
Total Enrollment 226
White: 106; Black: 102; Other: 18
Male: 76; Female: 150

A Magnet District VIII Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Magnet Program in Business and Office Education at East Boston High School is a four year program open to ninth graders from throughout the city. This magnet program, now in its second year, offers specialized training opportunities in Legal Stenography, Medical Stenography, Court Stenography (machine or touch shorthand), and Machine Transcription, which are not offered in other high schools.

COURSES: A unique feature of this program is the two-semester Business Exploration Course, which is taken by all ninth graders. In one semester, students explore many job opportunities in the business field: Clerical, Wholesale and Retail, Accounting, Data Processing, Secretarial, and Service. In the other semester, the student is introduced to typing, filing, and office machines, as well as to job-finding techniques. The purpose of the Business Exploratory Course is to familiarize the student with employment possibilities in business and to increase the student's knowledge about the skills and training required for specific jobs. Through this course, it is assumed a student will become more capable of making an informed choice of a major area of study for tenth grade and beyond. Training in the major courses includes: Medical Secretarial, Legal Secretarial, Touch Shorthand, and Machine Transcription. Major courses in Reprographics and Computer-oriented Accounting are being developed. A cooperative internship program for seniors is planned for 1980, whereby Magnet Business students will be given the option to work during their senior year. The Magnet Business Program is staffed with highly experienced teachers. Grant from ESAA have provided approximately $200,000 in modern office equipment and instructional materials for the program.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Vocational, academic, and personal counseling are provided by the Program Coordinator and the school counselor. According to the First National Bank Occupational Forecast, the clerical field offers the greatest numbers of opportunities to job seekers in the Boston area.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"East Boston High School's Business Education Department has always been proud of the dedication and enthusiasm of its teachers and the equipment available to students in their education for office jobs. Many of our students are currently employed in excellent positions as typists, file clerks, bookkeepers, and stenographers in such places as banks, the telephone company, insurance companies, and hospitals in the greater Boston area.

We have recently added a new dimension to our already excellent Business Education Department - the Business Magnet Program - which includes students not only from East Boston, but from the entire city. The new magnet program specializes in office job training that is not offered in other Boston Public Schools. These areas include: Legal Stenography, Medical Stenography, Court Stenography (machine or touch shorthand), Machine Transcription, and Computer-oriented Accounting.

Should you come to East Boston High School in September, be assured that you are WELCOME."

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The innovative curriculum and superior office equipment at East Boston are impressive. Particularly noteworthy is the two-room Business Exploration Laboratory. Equally impressive is the high level of student morale. I visited many classrooms and found the students to be attentive and engrossed in their work. A quarterly newsletter is sent to parents to inform them of program development activities, committee vacancies, and student activities. The only criticism expressed by students was the inflexibility of assignment to the magnet program: a student who is not a resident of East Boston (District 8) cannot transfer into the College Preparatory course if he or she changes vocational goals at a later date.

ELECTRICAL

CHARLESTOWN HIGH SCHOOL
50 MEDFORD STREET
CHARLESTOWN, MASSACHUSETTS 02129
Telephone: 242-0675

Daniel Griffin, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 76
White: 49; Black: 23; Other: 4
Male: 69; Female: 7

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Magnet Cooperative Electrical Program located at Charlestown High School is a three-year program open to tenth and eleventh grade students. As of this writing, there is a strong possibility that ninth grade students will be admitted for the next school year. Interested students should contact the School Department to see if this policy has been implemented. It aims to provide broad training in the electrical field so that graduates may qualify for employment in the electrical trade and industry or may be admitted to a technical school or college.

COURSES: Alternate weeks are spent in the classroom and in the electrical shop. The classroom week includes physical education, health, required academic subjects, and instruction related to the electrical trade, such as drafting and the electrical code. Academic subjects such as math and science are geared toward practical applications in the electrical trade. The electrical shop component is divided into four major areas of instruction: Wiring and Lighting; Sound and Signal; Industrial Electronics; and Motors and Controls. Each instructor, although certified to teach in all areas, concentrates on one specific area of instruction. Instruction is highly individualized and the student is allowed to progress at his or her own speed. There are eight Special Needs students mainstreamed into this program.

Eleventh and twelfth grade students are permitted to accept cooperative work assignments during the shop week. Students earn at least the minimum wage, as they acquire on-the-job training. The Placement Coordinator visits work sites regularly to follow each student's progress and to evaluate his or her work habits. The eight members of the faculty have taught in the Electrical Program for many years. They are licensed electricians and teach union electrical apprenticeship courses as well.

The Electrical Program is housed in the old Spencer Building behind the former high school. This program was originally planned to be merged into the new Occupational Resource Center rather than moved to the new Charlestown High School. However, it seems fairly certain that the program will be moved into the new high school by September.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Students in the Electrical Program have several resources when the need for counseling arises: the Guidance Counselor at Charlestown High School, homeroom teachers, and the job Placement Coordinator. Ten percent (10%) of the graduates of this program have traditionally gone to college. All graduating seniors are placed in jobs, usually with their cooperative work employer. Eighty percent (80%) of the contractors providing cooperative work experience sites are graduates of this program.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"The Cooperative Electrical Department is an optional high school program that is designed to train students to make a living in the electrical field.

The total time is allocated equally into the following four categories: 1. Academic Instruction 2. Related Electrical Instruction 3. Electrical Shop Experience 4. Actual Work Experience.

This is an accredited program that grants a high school diploma and allows each student to accumulate required time necessary for State License."

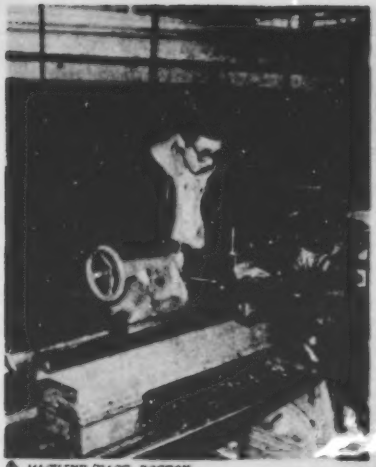
EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Charlestown Electrical Program has seventy-six (76) students currently enrolled, although in recent years as many as 400 students were attending classes. This dramatic underenrollment is attributed to the bad image of Charlestown High School in the early years of desegregation. However, the Coordinator/Director states that there have not been any incidents in the Electrical Program.

The shops, although not new, are adequately equipped for instructional purposes. The electronics instructor, however, complained about delays which occur when requisitioning supplies.

The coop students are very active in extra-curricular activities, student government, and sports; the presidents of the junior and senior classes are in the electrical program. This program offers the technically and mechanically inclined student the opportunity to acquire marketable skills while completing his or her high school education. The electrical and related electronics fields offer placements for individuals from a broad range of different skill types and levels, from electronics assembly to electrical engineer.

WOODWORKING/DORCHESTER PRINTING/BOSTON TECHNICAL UPHOLSTERY/DORCHESTER



↑ MACHINE/EAST BOSTON

↗ WOODWORKING/DORCHESTER

AUTOMOTIVE/BRIGHTON ↓

MACHINE/EAST BOSTON ↓

MACHINE

EAST BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL
86 WHITE STREET
EAST BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02128
Telephone: 567-0450

Murray Solomon, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 76
White: 43; Black: 32; Other: 1
Male: 61; Female: 15

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Magnet Cooperative Machine Shop Program at East Boston High School accepts tenth and eleventh grade students from throughout the city who wish to acquire training and cooperative work experience in machine tooling while completing their high school education. As of this writing, there is a strong possibility that ninth grade students will be admitted for the next school year. Interested students should contact the School Department to see if this policy has been implemented. An all-around machinist makes metal parts using power-driven machines and hand tools according to specifications, such as blueprints. This type of work requires mechanical aptitude, a high degree of concentration, and the ability to work to close tolerances.

COURSES: Students spend alternate weeks in the classrooms and in the machine shop. During the classroom week, the student takes the core academic subjects, physical education , and health, as well as "related" instruction. The "related" courses include drafting and blueprint reading. The required math and science courses are geared toward practical applications in the trade. There are usually no elective subjects, although arrangements are sometimes made to replace a study period with an art or music class. In shop, the student learns to use measuring devices and hand tools, and to set up and operate a variety of power machines used in metal parts fabrication. Curriculum development is an ongoing process in the Machine Shop Program. The math course has been restructured to include remedial work. The employers who provide work experience to coop students are consulted as to how the program can be improved. Advanced eleventh (11th) and twelfth (12th) grade students are permitted to work in local machine shops during their shop week. The student's performance on the job is evaluated at least once a month by his or her employer and by the Placement Coordinator for the program.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Counseling is provided by the Guidance Department at East Boston High School and by the Placement Coordinator for the Machine Shop Program. Most seniors are offered permanent jobs by their cooperative work employers, although one-third do not opt to work in the trade. Of the nineteen (19) graduates from last year's class, twelve (12) were placed in machine shops. There have been female students enrolled in this program for four years, although none have gone on to their senior year. Therefore, placement data for female graduates is non-existent.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"The East Boston High School Machine Shop Program has been training high school students successfully for the machine tool and related industries for many years. We can help interested individuals to acquire the skills, knowledge and attitudes for entry into the many available jobs in these industries.

This program helps the students to obtain sufficient experience in the use of hand tools, and measuring instruments together with the operation of lathes, milling machines, grinders, and drill presses, to enable him/her to become gainfully employed. Mathematics, Science, and Drafting are taught specifically to relate to the needs of the machinist.

The machine shop students at East Boston High School have total access to all school activities and are members of the various athletic teams, the glee club and other school organizations.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

A positive aspect of this program is that the vocational students are not isolated from other students at East Boston High School: shop students are assigned to regular home rooms, play sports, join the glee club, and participate in Proscholars.

More emphasis should be placed on recruiting and retaining female students. The situation of female students not completing the program should be evaluated to determine what factors influence their transferring to other schools and programs.

Much of the equipment for this program at East Boston High borders on the obsolete and should be replaced. Uncertainty about the future of this program has hampered efforts at modernization. However, for practical purposes, the training a student receives here is adequate to ensure job placement, if the student is motivated. According to Jobs for Massachusetts, Inc., a non-profit association of major employers in the manufacturing sector of the economy, there is a critical shortage of skilled machinists in the state. Students desirous of learning a trade which requires mechanical ability and which offers better than average opportunities for employment should consider Machine Shop.

MACHINE

HYDE PARK HIGH SCHOOL
655 METROPOLITAN AVENUE
HYDE PARK, MASSACHUSETTS 02136
Telephone: 361-0408

Richard Morano, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 39
White: 34; Black: 5; Other: 0
Male: 37; Female: 2

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Magnet Cooperative Machine Shop Program at Hyde Park High School is open to tenth and eleventh grade students on a city-wide basis. As of this writing, there is a strong possibility that 9th grade students will be admitted for the next school year. Interested students should contact the School Department to see if this policy has been implemented. Historically, the Machine Shop Program at Hyde Park has served students on the south side of the city while the program at East Boston has served students on the north side. The curriculum was developed jointly by teachers from both programs and the objectives are identical: to teach students the skills, safety practices and work attitudes necessary to secure employment in a machine shop; to provide the student the opportunity for supervised paid work experience; and to provide a sound high school education.

COURSES: Students spend alternate weeks in the classroom and in the machine shop. During the classroom week, students take English, Social Studies, Shop Mathematics, Physics, Drafting, Shop Process, Health, and Physical Education. The content of the Shop Process course correlates with the skills being taught in shop and includes: shop vocabulary, identification and use of shop tools, the methods of planning the proper sequence of operations in a job, and the theory of machining. Strong emphasis is placed on developing drafting ability in students since blueprint reading is an integral part of a machinist's job. During the shop week, the students become familiar with manufacturing conditions in the simulated machine shop. The use of hand tools, measuring devices, guages for inspection, and how to set-up and operate a variety of industrial machines such as turret and engine lathes, milling machines, shapers and planers, and grinders are taught. Individualized instruction permits the student to advance at his or her own pace. The Placement Coordinator works closely with the teachers in order to identify advanced students who are skilled enough to accept a cooperative work assignment during shop week in a local machine shop. Students are paid up to $4.00 per hour by their employers. The Placement Coordinator visits the work sites at least once a month in order to assess the quality of the training experience and to evaluate the student's proficiency, work attitude and attendance.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: The Placement Coordinator provides personal and career counseling and makes referrals to community agencies when appropriate. Vocational students who express interest in attending college are referred to the Guidance Department. Of the thirty-two (32) students who graduated in 1978, twenty-three (23) were placed in machine shops, and five (5) found jobs on their own in unrelated areas.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"Vocational Education, as the Machine Shop Program is better known, actually has been training students for occupations in machine shops for many years.

Today's emphasis on the need for a college education overlooks many things. The need in our society is for skilled trained mechanics. Many students being channeled into college preparatory courses would indeed become better, happier and more well-adjusted citizens, working with both their heads and their hands. Vocational education is not terminal education. Vocational education may indeed enable students, who would be unable to further their education, to work their way through a school of higher learning. Many of our former students have gone on to positions in engineering, teaching, and business, (at present 3 of the teachers in our program are former pupils)."

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Machine Shops at Hyde Park High School are spacious, clean, and well-lighted. The shops are equipped with industrial machines which are old, but well-maintained by the teachers. The coordinator stated that some modernization of the shops should be done, such as installing the more sophisticated numerically-controlled (computerized) machines.

The program is seriously under-enrolled. Only thirty-nine (39) students are currently enrolled in this program, which can accommodate up to 150 students. For the most part, the enrollment figures reflect the fear of parents and students to select a school with a history of racial violence. Four of the thirty-nine students are black. Additional white students will not be admitted until the black enrollment increases. If this program is to survive, it is imperative that the school administration identify and remedy the factors which deter black students from applying.

PRINTING~GRAPHICS

BOSTON TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL
205 TOWNSEND STREET
ROXBURY, MASSACHUSETTS 02121
Telephone: 445-0219

Richard Brown, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 58
White: 23; Black: 26; Other: 9
Male: 39; Female: 19

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The magnet cooperative printing and graphic arts program at Boston Technical High School is geared primarily toward training young men and women for employment in commercial printing shops. Students learn how to produce advertising materials, catalogs, pamphlets, business cards, calendars, posters, and invitations using letterpress, offset, machine composition, and computerized phototypesetting. In addition to learning mechanical printing skills, students acquire layout, paste-up, and proofreading experience in order to broaden their knowledge of printing operations. The program accepts tenth and eleventh grade students from all districts. As of this writing, there is a strong possibility that ninth grade students will be admitted for the next school year. Interested students should contact the School Department to see if this policy has been implemented.

COURSES: The program is divided evenly between classwork and shop experience and students alternate one week in the classroom and one week in shop. Classroom instruction includes English, Math, Science, Social Studies, Health, and Physical Education, as well as courses related to the printing industry such as drafting and typing. In tenth grade, students are introduced to all phases of printing operations and graphic arts during their shop week. During the tenth and eleventh grade, students may qualify for cooperative work assignments in local printing shops during their shop week. The work sites are supervised by the Coordinator/Director who evaluates the student's performance and ensures that the student's training plan is being properly implemented.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Counseling is provided by Guidance Department personnel. Of the twenty-two seniors who graduated in 1978, eighteen are working in the printing industry, three are working in jobs unrelated to printing, and one student is in college. Boston, as a center of printing and publishing, offers good employment opportunities to graduates of printing and graphic arts vocational education programs.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"The Boston Technical High Graphic Arts course offers letterpress printing, machine composition, linotype, Ludlow, and cold composition. Photo-offset printing, the use of reproductive camera, negative stripping, layout, imposition, platemaking, and offset pressework are also offered."

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The student morale is low and may be attributed to many factors. The printing program is housed in the basement and is physically separate from the rest of the school. The shops are crowded and the lighting is inadequate. Although the cooperative printing students participate in Flexible Campus, intramural sports, and extra-curricular activities, they are not integrated with Tech students for any classes, including Physical Education.

Although the printing shops are adequately equipped for training purposes, several improvements could be made. The largest print shop includes the linotype, intertype, and Ludlow typesetting equipment. Increased emphasis should be placed on offset printing because it has become the most widely used method of printing. Although additional offset equipment is in storage, this program cannot be expanded because of restrictions on space. More emphasis could also be placed on computerized photo-typesetting. This method of printing is growing rapidly, particularly in newspaper publication.

SHEET METAL-AUTO BODY

SOUTH BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL
95 G STREET
SOUTH BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02127
Telephone: 268-3082

William Heath, Coordinator/Director
Total Enrollment 52
White: 34; Black: 18; Other: 0
Male: 46; Female: 6

A Magnet District IX Cooperative Industrial Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Magnet Cooperative Sheet Metal and Auto Body Programs are located at South Boston High School and are open to tenth and eleventh grade students on a city-wide basis. As of this writing, there is a strong possibility that ninth grade students will be admitted for the next school year. Interested students should contact the School Department to see if this policy has been implemented. The objectives of the programs are to provide training and work experience in sheet metal fabrication or automobile body repair, while a student fulfills the requirements for a high school diploma.

COURSES: In the Sheet Metal Program, students spend alternate weeks in the classroom, studying academic and "related" subjects, and in the sheet metal shops, learning the fundamentals of the trade. The academic half of the program includes English, Social Studies, Related Math, Related Physics & Chemistry, Related Drafting, Shop Process, and Physical Education & Health. The Drafting course is geared to the sheet metal trade and focuses on patterns and duct work. Drafting is an essential skill for the sheet metal worker because up to fifty percent of the tasks involve layout and design. In the tenth grade, students spend their shop week learning how to make ducts for heating, ventilation, air conditioning, and exhaust systems; how to make sheet metal furniture, such as bookcases and cabinets; and how to do ornamental work, such as plant hangers and railings. The basic operations and procedures a student learns include measuring, bending, shaping, and fastening metal pieces. Eleventh and twelfth grade students work at local sheet metal shops during their shop week, under the supervision of the Placement Coordinator.

In the Auto Body Program, students spend alternate weeks in the classroom, studying academic and "related" subjects, and in the simulated auto body shop, learning to repair and paint automobiles which have been damaged in traffic accidents. Fifty percent (50%) of the program of study is conducted in the classroom and consists of coursework in the following subjects: English, Social Studies, Health, Physical Education, Related Math, Related Physics, Related Chemistry, Related Drafting, and Shop Process. The Shop Process course presents the theoretical foundations for the skills and procedures taught during shop week. During the tenth grade, students spend their shop week working on actual automobiles, learning how to use hand tools, pneumatic hammers, alignment machines, metal-cutting guns, and acetylene torches in order to perform the needed repairs. Students are also taught painting techniques, such as paint removal by power sander, the use of spray-paint guns, and paint mixing. Eleventh and twelfth grade students are placed in jobs in auto body shops and car dealerships during their shop week. Students are assigned to work sites according to skill level, by the Placement Coordinator. Work sites are monitored frequently by the Placement Coordinator, who reviews student evaluations with employers.

A Title I reading program is being developed. Students may take the Business Lab course as an elective. This course includes typing, calculators, Xerox, principles of business and accounting. Seniors are selected to participate in Flexible Campus programs on an individual basis.

46-431 O - 80 - 66

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Students in need of counseling services are referred to the Guidance Department of South Boston High School. The Coordinator/Director indicated, however, that the needs of the vocational students would be better served by a specialist in vocational, rather than academic, counseling. The Placement Coordinator provides job-related counseling to students assigned to cooperative work sites. Of the nine seniors who graduated from the Auto Body Program last year, four found employment in the field. Of the seven graduates in the Sheet Metal Program, four were placed in sheet metal jobs. The employment outlook for both occupations is good, according to Division of Employment Security data; however, job opportunities in sheet metal fluctuate with the construction industry.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

"Sheet Metal: The Sheet Metal Program includes a study of raw materials, designs, projects, problem-solving methods, duct work (which is used in heating, ventilating, air conditioning, and exhaust work); and the tools, materials and processed products of Sheet Metal work. The course teaches students the hand and machine skills that are useful to students seeking employment in the Sheet Metal industry. This course begins in 10th grade; during the 11th and 12th grade, students will spend one week at their home school in shop process, related and academic work, and the following week earning a salary on a job training site.

Auto Body: This course is designed to prepare students to fill career opportunities in the auto body industry. The program is primarily based on operational activities and all work is performed on actual automobiles. The Auto Body Cooperative Course begins with grade 10. Grades 11 and 12 are spent in alternating weeks at school and in the world of work at a training site. Students will study academic and related work during the week at school, and will be employed at a wage earning job in a shop outside the school location during the training week.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

A number of incidents which occurred in the recent past have necessitated the implementation of security precautions such as metal detectors, the inspection of packages, and the procedure of security guards escorting visitors to their destination.

Student morale is poor. Some new students discover in the first few weeks that they are not satisfied with sheet metal or auto body work and would prefer to transfer into a comprehensive high school program. However, programmatic transfers are not processed until February 1. The continuing presence of students kept unwillingly in the program weakens the morale of students truly interested in learning the subject material. There is also a problem in motivating students to accept cooperative work assignments. A significant percentage choose to remain in shop rather than to be placed on jobs. This conflicts with the philosophy and goals of cooperative work programs.

The school building is not well maintained. The area outside the Auto Body shop is dirty and strewn with broken glass.

POSTGRADUATE PROGRAMS

business

BOSTON BUSINESS SCHOOL
989 COMMONWEALTH AVENUE
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02215
Telephone: 787-5600

Herbert C. Hambelton, Headmaster
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 581
White: 414; Black: 144;
Other Minority: 23

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Boston Business School offers up to two years of free post-secondary business and office education to high school graduates who reside in the City of Boston. The objective of the school is to produce the highest possible degree of proficiency in the technical skills of typewriting, stenography, bookkeeping, accounting, and machine transcription in their graduates. Students are encouraged to advance at their own pace and to leave school when they attain the levels of proficiency established in each course area. Classes meet Monday through Friday from 8:45 a.m. to 2:15 p.m. from September to June. The holiday and vacation schedule for Boston Public Schools is followed. The school operates on a semester basis and accepts applications twice a year.

COURSES: Programs of varying length are offered in five major subject areas:

Bookkeeping: Approximately ten school-months are required to complete the following course of study -- Accounting I, II; Business English; Typewriting; Records Management; Business Law; Spelling; Business Mathematics; Office Practice; Executive Procedures.

Accounting: A seventeen school-month program includes the following subjects -- Accounting I, II, III; Business English; Business Math; Typewriting; Economics; Office Practice; Business Law; Psychology; Business Organization; Records Management; Executive Procedures; Spelling. Graduates of this program are employed as junior accountants. Many continue their education on a part-time basis while working and earn degrees in accounting.

Shorthand: A twelve school-month program which includes study of the following subjects -- Shorthand I, II, III; Business English; Typewriting; Records Management; Psychology; Spelling; Business Mathematics; Office Practice; Executive Procedures.

Executive Secretarial: A program which usually takes twenty-four school-months to complete and is comprised of the following courses -- Shorthand I, II, III; Business English; English Composition; Typewriting; Secretarial Accounting; Records Management; Business Law; Psychology; Secretarial Procedures; Spelling; Business Mathematics; Office Practice. In order to receive a diploma in this course, students must be able to type 55 words per minute and take shorthand at 120 words per minute.

Machine Transcription: This course can usually be completed in ten school-months, and includes the following subjects -- Machine Transcription; Business English; Typewriting; Records Management; Executive Procedures; Psychology; Office Practice; Spelling.

Students with previous business and office training and experience are evaluated and placed in classes according to their skill level. Therefore, these students may complete their programs in a shorter period of time.

The teachers were praised for their experience and effectiveness by the Headmaster. Classrooms and labs are furnished with modern typewriters, transcription equipment and office machines. Two classrooms are equipped with manual typewriters, but plans call for their replacement with electric typewriters within three years.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Vocational counseling and job placement assistance are provided by the full-time placement coordinator. The placement rate for graduates is 100%. The starting salaries range from $150 - $175 per week for accounting and bookkeeping graduates and from $175 - $245 for executive secretarial graduates. The employment outlook for skilled business and office personnel is excellent according to the Occupational Forecast of the First National Bank of Boston and the Occupational Outlook Handbook of the U. S. Department of Labor.

HEADMASTER'S STATEMENT

The Boston Business School offers a unique, tuition-free, Junior College-level program in business education to high school graduates who are residents of the City of Boston.

The school facility, a modern, two-story building, colorfully painted and attractively furnished with carpeting throughout, is conveniently located on Commonwealth Avenue near Boston University.

The Business School, formerly called Boston Clerical School, was founded in 1914. It is designed to encourage students to advance through a program of studies as rapidly as their ability and effort allow. A passing grade of 90 percent in all subjects is required for completion of training.

The maintenance of high standards has earned the school a sound reputation with the business community. Accordingly, there is a great demand for our graduates by the business offices throughout the Greater Boston area. The full-time Placement Office of the school works closely with the business firms to locate students in permanent and part-time jobs.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Boston Business School is an extremely attractive facility -- it is carpeted, freshly painted, clean, and well-lit! The space available adequately accommodates the classrooms, laboratories, cafeteria, and student lounge. The acoustics are very good. There is an air of quiet industriousness about the school. The Headmaster exhibited a high degree of pride in discussing his school and the accomplishments of its graduates. The seriousness of purpose of the students is exemplary.

The students did however, express two areas of concern: 1) many felt that Boston Business School should seek accreditation as a Junior College, and thus grant associate degrees rather than diplomas; and 2) some felt that they should be treated in a more adult-like manner and, accordingly, be given greater freedom. On the whole, the students' comments were overwhelmingly positive, underscoring their confidence in their ability to secure good jobs upon graduation.

nursing

PRACTICAL NURSING PROGRAM
73 HEMENWAY STREET
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02115
Telephone: 536-3844

Eileen Foley, Coordinator
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 36
White: 36; Black: 0;
Other Minority: 0

A District 9 Post-graduate Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Practical Nursing Program is a twelve month course of study, consisting of four months of study at the school and eight months in the clinical facilities of affiliated hospitals, preparing students to become Licensed Practical Nurses (LPNs). In order to be considered for admission, applicants must be over 17 1/2 years old; possess a high school diploma or equivalency certificate; submit a transcript of courses and grades; take the Entrance Examination for Schools of Practical Nursing. Applicants must also present evidence of good general and dental health; submit references; and have an interview with the Admissions Committee. Residents of Boston are given preference in the admissions process, and they pay no tuition.

A graduate of the program becomes eligible to be licensed in Massachusetts by passing the State Board examination.

COURSES: The first term consists of introductory courses in Physiology, Microbiology, Nutrition, Pharmacology, and Fundamentals of Nursing. The subsequent terms emphasize clinical experience in Adult Nursing, Pediatric Nursing, and Maternal and Newborn Nursing.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Counseling and Job Placement assistance is provided by the teachers. The employment outlook for Licensed Practical Nurses (LPNs) is very good. Starting salaries ranged from $190 to $230 per week for the most recent class of graduates. The program has a job placement rate of 100% for graduates.

COORDINATOR'S MESSAGE

We place a heavy emphasis on clinical experience. 100% of last year's class passed their State Boards the first time they sat for the test. We are closely tied to our hospital affiliates - Mattapan Chronic Hospital, Peter Bent Brigham Hospital, Boston City Hospital, and Boston Hospital for Women, Lying-In Division. Most students are offered jobs by the hospitals where they receive their clinical training.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Practical Nursing Program has been very successful since its inception in 1957. A resident of Boston can receive excellent training and can expect to secure employment upon completion of that training.

EVENING PRACTICAL NURSING PROGRAM
73 HEMENNAY STREET
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02115
Telephone: 536-3844

Diana Osgood, Coordinator
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 48
White: 46; Black: 2;
Other Minority: 0

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Evening Practical Nursing Program is designed to provide part-time Licensed Practical Nurse (LPN) training to individuals who are currently employed as Nurses' Aides or in other related health occupations, and who must continue to work while they attend school. A student may complete the program in two school years by attending classes three evenings per week from 5:00 p.m. to 10:30 p.m. The admissions criteria are the same as for the day Practical Nursing Program.

COURSES: The subjects required are Basic Nursing, Nursing of Adults I & II, Nursing of Children, and Maternity Nursing. As in the day program, emphasis is placed on clinical training and experience in affiliated hospitals.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Counseling is provided by teachers. Most graduates of this program are offered jobs as LPNs by their current employers. In order to become licensed as LPNs, graduates must successfully pass the State Boards.

dental

DENTAL ASSISTANT PROGRAM
73 HEMENNAY STREET
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS 02115
Telephone: 536-3845

Nancy Wheaton, Instructor
Total Enrollment 1978-79 - 18
White: 16; Black: 2;
Other Minority: 0

A District 9 Post-graduate Program

GENERAL INFORMATION AND OBJECTIVES: The Dental Assistant Program offers free training in dental assisting to Boston residents who possess a high school diploma or equivalency certificate. Additional admissions requirements are evidence of good dental and physical health, letters of recommendation, a personal interview, and a pre-entrance evaluation examination. The program runs for one academic year from September to June.

COURSES: The program of study includes office procedures, chairside assisting, X-ray techniques, and laboratory procedures. Fifteen weeks of the course is devoted to supervised clinical experience in affiliated dental clinics and private dental offices.

COUNSELING AND JOB PLACEMENT: Since this is a small program, counseling is provided by the instructor. The job outlook for Dental Assistants is good as is evidenced by the fact that thirteen (13) of the sixteen (16) students who graduated last year were placed in jobs. The average weekly starting salary for Dental Assistants is $140 - $150 per week.

FINANCIAL AID RECEIVED BY THE JUNE, 1978 BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES
(as reported to the Boston Public Schools' Guidance Unit)

SCHOOL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Boston Latin School	$317,900.00	$127,300.00	$445,200.00
Boston Latin Academy			694,043.00
Boston Technical High School	130,642.00	120,121.00	250,763.00
Boston Trade School	1,500.00	3,000.00	4,500.00
Boston High School	16,800.00	13,500.00	30,300.00
Brighton High School	30,355.00	23,008.00	53,363.00
Charlestown High School	20,160.00	15,915.00	36,075.00
Copley Square	14,361.00	48,501.00	62,862.00
Dorchester High School	26,737.00	41,525.00	68,262.00
East Boston	28,000.00	52,500 00	80,500.00
English High School	34,170.00	63,341.00	97,511.00
Hyde Park High School	28,260.00	34,540.00	62,800.00
Jamaica Plain High School	6,875.00	33,745.00	40,620.00
Jeremiah E. Burke	27,800.00	41,550.00	69,350.00
Madison Park High School	84,154.00	111,157.00	195,311.00
Mario Umana	No graduates in June, 1978		
Roxbury High	21,100.00	26,700.00	47,800.00
South Boston High	9,000.00	8,100.00	17,100.00
West Roxbury High School	22,724.00	73,165.00	95,889.00
TOTALS	$820,538.00	$1,531,711.00	$2,352,249.00

It should be noted that the above amounts are what the students reported to the Guidance Unit. Some students do not report to the Unit regarding financial aid obtained, as they feel it is a confidential matter. Therefore, it is likely that more money was received by students than is indicated by this table.

Charlestown
Charlestown High
E. Boston High
Umana
East Boston
Brighton
Boston Business School
Brighton High
ACC
Copley Sq. High
Boston High
English Language Center
Nursing/Dental
English High
So. Boston High
South Boston
Boston Latin
Boston Trade
(Future ORC)
Madison Park
Roxbury High
ORC
Boston Technical
J. E. Burke
Jamaica Plain High
Latin Academy
West Roxbury
West Roxbury High
Dorchester High
Dorchester
Hyde Park High
Hyde Park

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THEN
and
NOW
Reading Achievement
in Indiana
(1944-45 and 1976)
Roger Farr
Leo Fay
Indiana University
Harold H. Negley
Superintendent
Indiana Department
of Public Instruction

THEN and NOW

Reading Achievement in Indiana (1944-45 and 1976)

Roger Farr
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Harold H. Negley
Superintendent
Indiana Department of Public Instruction

School of Education
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana
1978

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Special acknowledgment to:

- The school corporations taking part in the study,
- their superintendents, and
- the principals and teachers who administered the tests and responded to the survey
- Jack Ryneron, Director of Production, The Psychological Corporation
- Michael Beck, Assistant Director of the Educational Measurement Division, The Psychological Corporation

Computerization: George A. Alexander

Context research: Paula Blomenberg

Sample design: Dr. John Hesemann, Director of the Division of Educational Information and Research, Indiana Department of Public Instruction

Development of final report and school corporation assistance:

- Dr. Gail Tissier, Director of the Division of Reading Effectiveness, Indiana Department of Public Instruction
- Dr. Margot K. Green, Evaluation Consultant to the Division of Reading Effectiveness, Indiana Department of Public Instruction

Report writing and formating: Bruce Tone

Test distribution and scoring: Mary Hill and Margaret Atwell

Typing and camera-ready preparation: Marcia McHargue

Funds for this study were provided by grants from the Spencer Foundation and the Lilly Endowment. The Psychological Corporation also contributed in the reproduction of the 1943 and 1939 ISRT-tests, manuals, and answer sheets.

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Part I

INTRODUCTION

Concern over declining test scores stresses the need for studies comparing the reading achievement of children from broad geographic areas and from more widely separated time periods.

A 1944-1945 study in Indiana provided the opportunity to replicate in 1976 and to consider some of the societal and educational factors that could be relevant to the results of the comparison.

A Then and Now Study Using Broad Data from Indiana

An extensive study comparing the reading achievement of sixth and tenth graders in Indiana in 1944 and 1945 to that of Indiana children in the same grades in 1976 has shown that sixth graders in the state score about the same overall as they did 30 years ago. This is true when only grade equivalent scores are considered. The differences between the sixth grade scores for the two periods vary, depending on the subskill measured; and they favor the earlier sample by one month on Total Median Score. However, the 1944-1945 sixth grade students were found to be, on the average, 10 months older than their 1976 counterparts. When this 10-month age advantage for the 1944-1945 sample is considered, the 1976 sixth graders outscored their earlier counterparts significantly on every subskill measured and on Total Median Score.

For tenth graders, a comparison of the percentiles derived from test scores tends to favor the earlier sample very slightly, with the 1976 sample scoring higher on several subskills. The 1944-1945 tenth graders were 14 months older than the 1976 tenth graders, however; and when one draws age equivalent comparisons

between the 1944-1945 and 1976 tenth grade samples, the results favor the 1976 sophomores dramatically.

Both samples for each age were tested using the same edition of the Iowa Silent Reading Tests. The 1943 Elementary ISRT were used to measure the sixth graders and the 1939 Advanced ISRT to measure the tenth graders. These editions of the Iowa tests seem more matched content-wise to the values and emphases of the earlier period, and they were administered under the limited time allotments which may have been more familiar in the experience of the 1944-1945 students.

The comparison study was conducted by the Indiana University School of Education and the Division of Reading Effectiveness of the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction. It was designed with an awareness of both the need for broadly based comparison and the problems in drawing such comparison. Surveys taken of school personnel in each period offer some revealing comparisons of setting or "context" factors which are relevant to reading education. It is recommended that the results of the study be interpreted in the cautious light of societal and educational factors that may have had a bearing on the group scores in the two periods.

The Need for Scientific Comparison

Much of what the public reads about today's schools draws loose comparisons of the achievement of contemporary students to those educated in past years. Few, if any, of such comparisons are based on broadly collected or carefully controlled data; and few make any attempt to examine the societal or educational contexts that help in understanding the performance of children. Many comparisons that gain public attention today are very general appeals to intuitive evaluation; they evoke either allegiance to yesterday's methods, materials, and classrooms or a defense of what is happening in today's schools. Unscientific comparison serves critics with a broad spectrum of motivations that range from a genuine concern for the improvement of education to the desire to effect political change. Obviously, the critics whose interest centers on improving our schools must be wary of quick, careless comparison and should seek direction from studies that attempt to be as well controlled as possible. Such studies need to be prefaced by the understanding that it is difficult to compare the achievement of today's children to that of children of former years.

A major reason that adequate comparisons have not been made is that they are difficult to effect. When data from previous years are available, the details that describe their collection, the subjects from which they were drawn, the schools that participated, and educational and societal factors that may have acted as significant variables on the specific sample are not always available. The school settings from which the samples are drawn change for many reasons: populations shift, communities develop or dwindle, schools consolidate, emphases in teacher training change, and age levels within grades change markedly.

Nor does measurement remain constant. The measurement instrument used in one era may have become unavailable, and if made available, may feature content that was more appropriate to earlier generations than to present day students. Thus if the testing instrument remains constant, its appropriateness for the populations compared must be considered. If it does not remain constant, there are other problems. Instruments that measure development and achievement change; they change to reflect shifting social values and new curricula. Thus, when scores from a contemporary instrument are laid beside those from a test of another era, content of the tests themselves must be considered as a vital factor in any differences noted.

One must compare the achievement of today's children to that of the past with a caution that considers as many of these variables as possible. Such concerns make achievement comparisons over periods of time a very complicated and imprecise business; but any responsible attempt to evaluate today's schools by comparison with an earlier period needs to examine them.

Reading as a Comparison Measure

In comparisons of yesterday's education to today's, the reading achievement of children has become a whetstone. The charge is sometimes made that children do not read as well as in the past and that schools are to blame. A consideration of social changes may provide understanding of such factors as the developing emphases in curricula and differences in the two populations compared, but there is as yet no solid objective proof that children do not read as well as they used to.

Concern over declining scores. Educators and the general public have registered great concern over the decline of scores on such tests as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and the American College Testing Program (ACT). This concern has led to some careful analyses, such as that which grew out of the 1975

Conference on Declining Test Scores, called by the National Institute of Education (NIE) of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.[1] Although the decline in such tests has been widespread and marked enough to merit a serious search for all possible causes, the Conference cautioned:

> *At the present time...research cannot link the score changes on tests for the college-bound to the probable score changes for the entire school population because of sampling errors and non-random selection of students.*
>
> [*Silver, 1976, p. 23*]

This is not the only reason that it is unwise to use declining scores on college entrance exams as evidence that children at all levels are not reading as well as they used to read. It is obvious, of course, that while eleventh and twelfth graders were once second and sixth graders etc., the SAT and ACT are producing comparative scores for only eleventh and twelfth graders. Even more important is the fact that while the verbal parts of these tests do measure vocabulary and comprehension, they are

1. The NIE Conference stressed the need for studying numerous factors. Meanwhile, some existing literature attempts to deal with factors in measurement, school, and/or society: See Larson et al. (1977), Farr et al. (1974), Weinman (n.d.), Harnishhfeger and Wiley (1975), and Wirtz et al. (1977).

not measuring basic reading ability. Moreover, the tests are designed as predictors of success in college studies and as such assess a rather high level of reading ability.

Multiple factors may help explain the decline in scores on such tests as the SAT and ACT. A recent review by a committee of the College Entrance Examination Board (Wirtz et al., 1977) examines changes in the tests themselves, in the population taking the tests, and in the educational goals that effected the change in test-taking population. The study also considers changes in school curricula and the social needs that effect those changes, the effects of television and of social upheaval, motivational factors that affect the high school senior's attitude toward the tests, etc. Among the conclusions of the Wirtz et al. review are these:

> *A major part of the decline in college entrance examination scores, especially in its earlier stages, is clearly traceable to a change in the composition of the student group taking the test, resulting from the deliberate and historic decision in this country in the 1960s to extend and expand educational opportunity and to eliminate previous discrimination in according it.*
>
> (Wirtz et al., 1977, p. 1)
>
> *Equally clearly the score decline also reflects, particularly in the 1970s,...the*

> *impact on learning of changes that have taken place in both the schools and the society during a period of turbulence and distraction rarely paralleled in American History.*
> (Wirtz et al., 1977, pp. 1-2)

If such considerations are part of a scientific approach to interpreting declines in scores on college entrance exams, they certainly recommend against using those scores to attack current reading education across the board in American schools. Writz et al. (1977) cautioned:

> *Any generalization from the SAT statistics has to be carefully qualified. It should not be extended to cover the situation of American youth as a whole or the overall effectiveness of the learning process.*
>
> *...recently published College Board Guidelines on the Uses of College Board Test Scores and Related Data warn sharply against their misuse as measures of the broader effectiveness of elementary and secondary education in general.*
> (1977, p. 5)

Increasing functional literacy. Some critics use the decline of the SAT and ACT to sound alarm that the national illiteracy rate is growing. Any careful consideration of data related to national literacy will show, however, how difficult it is to acquire meaningful data on illiteracy or data based on a

consistent definition of illiteracy over a spread of years (c.f., Farr et al., 1974; Cook, 1977). And careful analysis will show that what literacy data there are indicate a continuous drop in illiteracy (or increase in functional literacy) in the United States, using various definitions that can be isolated for data from different years (Cook, 1977).

Generally, illiteracy dropped from 10.7 percent of the population 10 years or older in the United States in 1910 (6.2 million persons) to one percent (1.4 million persons) 14 years or older in 1969--according to U.S. Census data (Cook, 1977, pp. 3 and 105). The 1910 data is based on a "yes" or "no" response of U.S. citizens to a literacy question in English. The 1969 data (from the 1970 census) is based on whether an individual can read or write a simple message in any language. Such varying definitions of "literacy" accompany the figures for the decades, which nonetheless indicate a general growth of functional literacy in a country apparently concerned with its people's ability to function with language.

By 1930--after awareness created by a National Illiteracy Crusade in 1924--the number of persons over 10 years of age who could not read or write in any language was 4.3 million (4.3 percent of that population) (Cook, 1977, p. 36). The 1940

census used the age 25 and determined that 10 million (or 13.5 percent of that population) were functionally illiterate. That figure exceeded the combined adult population of California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, Wyoming, Colorado, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Nebraska (Cook, 1977, p. 52).

Using years of schooling as a measure in 1950, 10.5 million persons 14 years and older (9.6 percent of that population in the U.S.) had less than a fifth grade education. In 1960, that figure had dropped to 8.9 million or 7 percent (Cook, 1977, p. 86). As the data for 1969 shows, the definition of literacy changed to determine that one percent of the population over 14 could not read or write a simple message in any language. The varied ways of determining literacy demonstrate the difficulty of drawing scientific, long-range comparisons with existing data.

A study by Fisher (1978) uses the existing data on illiteracy along with studies by the Educational Testing Service, Louis Harris and Associates, and the National Assessment of Educational Progress to argue that our schools "are more effective today than they have been over the last 30 to 40 years." (p. 8) Yet literacy data cannot adequately reveal whether our children

read more poorly or better than did children of earlier periods or what role our schools have played in any differences found.

Other indicators. A look at studies using other general aptitude tests--some of which have sub-measures that correspond to some basic reading skills--gives a mixed indication of the reading achievement of today's students. In 1975, Flanagan (1976) gave 10 of the tests used by the 1960 project TALENT to 1,800 grade 9, 10, and 11 students. Flanagan and Jung (1971) had given one of these measures, the Reading Comprehension Test, to 13,000 grade 11 subjects in 1970. There was only a very slight gain on the subtest between 1960 and 1970; tenth graders in 1975 dropped only slightly on this subtest. There were more significant drops in the Vocabulary and English subtests, but the reported percentages for reading comprehension illustrate the problem of interpreting such data. How meaningful are very slight differences when comparing the broad sample of 1960 to the 13,000 eleventh graders in 1970 or either of those groups to 1,800 ninth, tenth, and eleventh graders in 1975?

Larsen, et al. (1976) compared college freshman reading test scores at the University of Florida for 1960 and 1970. Over the 11 years, they noted slight, but non-significant, increases in raw scores on reading rate, vocabulary, and comprehension.

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In reviewing the decline in SAT scores in Massachusetts (Weinman, n.d.) discusses the fact that Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test scores for 1962 and 1975 show only a slight decline on the verbal section. She reports that on one-hour achievement tests in academic subjects (also administered by the College Entrance Examination Board), college-bound juniors and seniors scored five points higher on an average of the 15 tests between 1971 and 1975 (pp. 7-11). Weinman reports on eight of the specific subtests, none of which is directly applicable to reading skills.

The Iowa Tests of Basic Skills show increases on all tests for the elementary children it measures from 1940 to 1965 and a general drop after that. Median percentiles for Reading and Vocabulary subtest scores drop between 1965 and 1975. The drop ranges from between less than one percentile for fifth grade vocabulary to 4.5 percentiles for reading in grade 8. Median percentiles for grades 3 and 4 on these subtests increased slightly (Harnischfeger and Wiley, pp. 49, 50). Scores on the Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test (given to over 90 percent of Minnesota juniors) rose about 5.5 points from 1958 until the mid 1960's, after which they lost about half of that gain (Harnischfeger and Wiley, pp. 40, 41). The test yields one score for all

aptitudes combined. The same rise to the mid 1960's with a subsequent drop is noted for the Iowa Tests of Educational Development, which measure achievement in seven areas for grades 9 through 12. Although one test measures Vocabulary, none measures any other basic reading skill (Harnischfeger, 1975, pp. 42, 43).

Generally, it can be noted that the scores of our children on various skill and aptitude tests rose until the mid 1960's and began to decline after that. But it is fruitless to arm an attack on the teaching of reading with this data without heeding its sketchy nature. Farr et al. (1974) summarize the dependability of the available data:

> *...Unfortunately, subjective appraisal of trends in achievement, reading achievement included, is often far from reliable and/or valid. At least, as a minimum condition, such judgment should be complemented by more objectively gathered data. We believe that our efforts have shown that the current data base on trends in reading achievement is extremely difficult to assess, contains many flaws which make interpretation difficult or impossible, has been irregularly maintained and hardly allows for any sure and sweeping generalizations about gains or losses across the years to be made.*
>
> (p. 139)

NAEP reading data. A comparison by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) of scores on reading tests

given in 1971 and again in 1975 contradicts the charge that reading achievement has dropped in recent years (NAEP Newsletter, 1976). NAEP research is carefully controlled to scientifically eliminate confounding factors, and it is the most broadly based study available. The NAEP study tested over 63,000 students, ages 9, 13, and 17, in literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, and reference skills. The NAEP 1975 results compared to those in 1971 show that the reading ability of nine year olds improved, while there was little change for 13 year olds and 17 year olds. There was improvement among 17 year olds on the most literal of the comprehension questions.

An Attempt to Draw A Broadly Based Comparison

When data related specifically to reading are used in the national debate about the reading ability of students, they tend to be based on short-term comparisons and to relate to given school districts or even to given schools. Although the NAEP data come from a national setting, they span only five years.

A question more fundamental to the concern of whether reading education is more or less effective than in the past must ask whether reading achievement has changed over a broader span

of time in a broad geographic area. Objective data of this scope are needed to lend credence to any argument that the reading ability of children is decreasing or increasing. And for such data to be interpreted with any assurance of how well they evaluate today's schools, one should consider related data that attempt to define the populations compared, the social and educational settings in which they studied, and the relevance of the instrument or instruments used to the populations. It is an interesting challenge.

Replicating a broad Indiana study. In an attempt to acquire data to reveal how children's reading achievement has changed over a broad span of time in a broad geographic region, a study was conducted by the Indiana University School of Education and the Division of Reading Effectiveness of the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction. The study was designed to replicate the 1944-1945 statewide assessment of reading achievement conducted in Indiana for grades 6 and 10. The 1944-1945 assessment--also conducted by the Department of Public Instruction and Indiana University--used the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (ISRT), BM edition, (1943-1939) to sample 25 percent of the students in the state at each grade level. Subjects in 1944-1945 totaled over 15,000 sixth- and over 11,000 tenth-grade students.

The 1976 study used reprints of the same edition of the ISRT in 1944-1945. This measure was administered to a seven percent, stratified sample of over 8,000 sixth- and 8,000 tenth-grade students in Indiana schools. Thus comparable data on the total scores and on the subtest scores of the ISRT for a large population representing the entire state were made available.

Considering context factors. At the same time that the test data were interpreted, the study considered societal and educational survey data[2] to attempt to better understand any differences found in reading performance on the ISRT. These data were collected through the administration of a questionnaire to principals and teachers involved in the 1976 study. Some similar data were gathered in 1944-1945, allowing comparisons that generate some understanding of the reading performance differences noted between 1944-1945 and 1976. Such interpretation also recommends the eventual intensive analysis of all educational and societal changes to aid in interpreting the test scores.

2. The 1976 survey data were collected by Paula Blomenberg, whose dissertation for a doctoral degree in reading at Indiana University is in progress. Blomenberg is preparing an in-depth analysis of educational and societal changes in Indiana between the periods the test was administered. The educational and societal data used in this report are from her research.

Objectives of the 1976 study. The major objectives of this comparative study were, then:

1) To compare the general reading ability of sixth and tenth grade students in Indiana in the years 1944-1945 and 1976 on the ISRT.
2) To compare the reading performances of sixth and tenth grade students in Indiana in the years 1944-1945 and 1976 on specific skills as measured by the subtests of the ISRT.
3) To consider societal and educational factors that may suggest ways to better understand any differences in reading performance noted for the two periods.

Contents of this report. The objectives of the study are treated in this report under several major headings:

- Under "Methods," the general procedures for 1944-1945 and 1976 studies are described. General descriptions of the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)--Elementary and Advanced--precede descriptions of the samples and an account of the data processing.
- Next, under "Results," the comparison of the test scores is presented for the sixth-grade and then the tenth grade.

- Under "Context" changes in the societal and educational environments of the subjects tested in the two periods are considered.
- The final part of the report presents several "Conclusions" with their implications. These will include a consideration of the needs of comparison studies and of the limitations of this study.

Part II

METHODS

In replicating the 1944-1945 study, the 1976 study used the exact tests used in the earlier assessment. The procedures for 1976 varied in that the tests were scored at Indiana University, additional information was sought in the accompanying survey to facilitate future analysis, and the data processing was totally computerized.

The 1976 sample was drawn on a plan for random selection within stratification to achieve the statewide proportional representation sought in the earlier study which tested 25 percent of the total state population in the sixth and tenth grades.

General Procedures Used in 1944-1945 and 1976

Both in 1944-1945 and in 1976, the study using the ISRT was conducted jointly by personnel in the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction and the School of Education of Indiana University. The close cooperation of personnel from the Department, the University, and the participating schools was necessary to administer the ISRT to large, state-wide samples and to collect survey data on the communities and schools in the studies.[3]

3. Information in this and other sections concerning the 1944-1945 testing is drawn from the following two reports:

Smith, Henry Lester, and Eaton, Merrill T. Analysis of the proficiency in silent reading of 15,206 sixth grade pupils in 648 schools in Indiana. Bulletin of the School of Education Indiana University, November 1945, 21(6). Published by The Bureau of Cooperative Research and Field Service, Indiana University.

Smith, Henry Lester, and Eaton, Merrill T. Analysis of the proficiency in silent reading of 11,424 sophomore pupils in 243 high schools in Indiana. Bulletin of the School of Education Indiana University, January 1945, 22(1). Published by the Bureau of Cooperative Research and Field Service, Indiana University.

1944-1945 Testing Procedures

For the 1944-1945 study, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction appointed a state testing committee of representative school people. This committee, the State Department of Public Instruction, and representatives of the Indiana University School of Education planned the study. A major aim of the 1944-1945 testing was to provide educators with "reliable information...of the level of ability of each pupil in the various skills comprising silent reading...." The Iowa Silent Reading Tests (Revised): Form BM[4] was the instrument selected--the Elementary Test for the sixth grade and the Advanced Test for the tenth grade.

The State Department of Public Instruction notified all school districts in the State, and participation was encouraged but optional. The State Department of Public Instruction initiated and guided the program. The University distributed

4. Iowa Silent Reading Tests (New Edition)-Elementary Test: Form BM (Revised). H. A. Greene and V. H. Kelley. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1943.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests (New Edition)-Advanced Test: Form BM (Revised). H. A. Greene, A. N. Jorgensen, and V. H. Kelley. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1939.

instructions for administration of the tests, and personnel of the participating schools assumed full responsibility for the administration of the tests. The tests were scored by the school personnel in each participating school--some by hand and some by machine.

Sixth graders were tested over a 6-month period of the 1944-1945 school year. Summary, analysis, and interpretation of the data was done at Indiana University. Grade/month norms for the date the test was administered were determined. The tenth graders were tested "during the first semester of the school year 1944-1945." No more specific time period is given in the report of the study.

1976 Testing Procedures

To create comparable data for the 1976 study, Indiana University personnel arranged with the Psychological Corporation for the reprinting of the instrument (test booklets and answer sheets) used in 1944-1945. (See description of instrument below.) The Division of Reading Effectiveness of the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction introduced and described the study to the school systems selected for the sample. The few

corporations and schools which declined to participate were replaced with comparable substitutes to balance the random sample.

Indiana Department of Public Instruction personnel handled all liaison with the schools. As in 1944-1945, the school personnel administered the tests. The sixth-grade test was administered by the classroom teacher and the tenth-grade test by the homeroom or English teacher. The testing was done during the third week of November, 1976. Unlike the 1944-1945 administration, when the tests were scored by the school personnel, test score sheets were forwarded to the University for machine scoring, compiling, and interpretation and analysis.

Questionnaire Surveys

In the 1944-1945 study, school personnel were asked to fill out a special form prepared by the University to ascertain data about the pupils, the school, and methods and aspects of teaching reading. The sixth-grade survey asked for length of the school term, number of classrooms in the building, number of grades in the room, number of minutes given each day and each week to the study of reading, class and school enrollment, and whether reading was taught as a separate subject or in connection

with another subject or both. The 1944-1945 tenth grade study reported on only school enrollment and length of school year.

In the 1976 study, a questionnaire based on the form used in the 1944-1945 sixth-grade study, but also seeking additional information, was sent to all participating school personnel. It sought to ascertain the following: the type of community served by the school, the type of organization (grade breakdown) of the schools in the system, average class size, length of school year, class size (total for grade level), classes included in school, teacher training and experience in years, number of rooms in building (elementary), grouping within classroom (elementary), whether reading was taught with other subjects, information about the school's reading instructional program, varied information about the type of students taught and the community, and teacher reactions to the Iowa Silent Reading Tests. Only the data for which there is comparable data in the earlier study is reported here.[5] The teacher reactions are reported with the discussion of the appropriateness of the tests to the samples under "Conclusions," Part V of this report.

5. For her dissertation, Blomenberg is gathering data from the 1940's in an effort to match 1976 survey questions not asked of school personnel in 1944-1945.

Description of the Instruments

The Iowa Silent Reading Tests have been broadly used in the United States since their development to measure achievement in silent reading. The special printing of the ISRT--Elementary and Advanced--for the 1976 study were the thirty-second and twenty-fifth editions, respectively. Thus the 1976 samples took the exact tests given in 1944-1945.

The Elementary Test

The Iowa Silent Reading Tests (New Edition)-Elementary Test: Form BM (Revised) (Greene and Kelley, 1943) was used to test the sixth graders. It was developed to assess the silent reading ability of students in grades four through eight. The test emphasizes comprehension in silent reading. The manual stresses this point: "A few years ago it was enough for the child glibly to pronounce words appearing on the printed page. Now it is considered much more important for him to be able to comprehend rapidly and indicate by specific reactions his understanding of the materials." (Iowa Silent Reading Tests: New Edition: Elementary Test, Manual of Directions, 1943, p. 3)

The test is made up of a total of eight subtests plus a total score. These are 1) Rate, 2) Comprehension, 3) Directed Reading, 4) Word Meaning, 5) Paragraph Comprehension, 6) Sentence Meaning, 7) Alphabetizing, 8) Use of Index, and Total Median Score.

1. Rate. This test is the number of words a student can read in two minutes. The student reads a story for one minute, and the examiner then calls time and the examinee circles the word that was being read when time was called. The same procedure is followed for a second story. The rate score is the total number of words read in two minutes. No comprehension is measured on the Rate test.

2. Comprehension. This test is made up of 10 questions following each of the two passages in the Rate test. After the examinees have read for one minute, they are given an additional two minutes to answer the 10 questions; thus examinees are given two minutes to answer each set of 10 questions. They may not look back at the passage when they are answering the questions. This test might better be called a "rate of comprehension" test, for it is so dependent on speed. It is a test in which the comprehension is at a constant level of difficulty and hence is not a "power of comprehension" test. The directions for the test

necessitate that the examinees turn their question booklet upside down three different times.

3. Directed Reading. This test is made up of two passages, each passage accompanied by 20 questions. The examinee is instructed to locate the sentence in the passage which answers the question. The answer is chosen from four numbers corresponding to sentences in the passage. The first passage is 27 sentences long, and the second is 35 sentences long.

The test is timed; examinees are given five minutes to complete each passage. Both passages are textbook-type selections. The first deals with "Slate": how it was formed, how it is quarried, how it is used. The second deals with "Life in a Castle in Olden Times." The article describes the castle, the people who lived and worked in it, and a little about the feudal system.

4. Word Meaning. The test is made up of 55 items. Examinees are to chose from among four choices the word that means approximately the same as the stimulus word. Examinees are given nine minutes to complete the test,

5. Paragraph Comprehension. This test is made up of 10 short paragraphs (about 75 to 100 words each). Each paragraph is followed by three multiple-choice comprehension questions. Each

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question has three choices. Examinees are given seven minutes to complete the test. The passages deal with the kinds of topics that are frequently found in textbooks, such as "swordfish," "silk," "corn crops," and "ducks."

6. Sentence Meaning. This test is made up of 27 questions which the examinee must answer either "yes" or "no." To answer some questions, the examinee must have background information; a few require answers based on moral judgment. The following are examples:

- Is the Fourth of July a national holiday?
- Is it necessary for the President of the United States to be a citizen?
- Is treason to one's country punishable by death?
- Does a witness always tell the truth?

Examinees have three minutes to complete the test.

7. Alphabetizing. This test is made up of 20 words and 30 pairs of guide words such as those found at the top of a page in a dictionary. Examinees are required to match each word with the pair of guide words that would appear at the top of the page on which the stimulus word would be listed. Examinees have four minutes to complete the test.

8. Use of an Index. This test is made up of several entries in an index such as might be found in a social studies textbook. Also included are 18 five-option multiple choice questions which necessitate the use of the index. Examinees are given a total of six minutes to answer the 20 questions.

Total Median Score. The raw scores for the subtests are converted into standard scores, and the median standard score for the eight subtests is the Total Median Score. It is used as a measure of average silent reading ability.

The Advanced Tests

The Iowa Silent Reading Test (New Edition)-Advanced Test: Form EM (Revised) (Greene, Jorgensen and Kelley, 1939) was designed to measure the silent reading proficiency of high school and junior college students. The test primarily includes work-study silent reading tasks that are basic to the content subjects of history, geography, science, and literature. The manual suggests that "progress in these subjects depends to a greater degree upon the ability of pupils to read rapidly and intelligently than upon any other single factor." (Iowa Silent Reading Tests: New Edition: Advanced Test: Manual of Directions, 1939, p. 1)

The test measures three broad general areas of silent reading abilities: 1) rate of reading at a controlled level of material difficulty; 2) comprehension of words, poetry, sentences, paragraphs, and longer selections; and 3) ability to use skills required to locate information. Each of these areas is covered in a number of different ways by means of 11 different types of materials arranged in seven subtests. The results are reported in nine different subtest scores plus a total score. The first and last subtests produce two scores each. The subtests are 1) Rate and Comprehension, 2) Directed Reading, 3) Poetry Comprehension, 4) Word Meaning, 5) Sentence Meaning, 6) Paragraph Comprehension, and 7) Location of Information. A total of 45 minutes of testing time are allowed to the complete test.

Test 1: Rate and Comprehension. In this test, the examinee reads two types of prose--one containing science content and the other social studies content--at a rate which, for the reader, is most comfortable for comprehension.

The examinee reads the first article for one minute and then records the number of the sentence he or she was reading at the end of that time. The examinee then reads an additional two minutes, at which time he or she turns the booklet upside

down and is given an additional two minutes to respond to 10 multiple choice items. The examinee reads the second article for one minute, records the sentence number, and then reads for an additional three minutes. He or she then turns the page and has three minutes to respond to 25 true-false questions.

The rate score is the total number of sentences read in the one-minute reading of the two articles. The comprehension scores from the two selections are combined into a single score to represent one of the nine subtest scores. Test 1 thus provides two subtest scores: Rate and Comprehension, each derived from adding the scores from the two selections.

Test 2: Directed Reading. This test is designed to measure comprehension without stressing memory. The test consists of an article containing 24 numbered sentences and 20 questions. The examinee reads each question and then finds the sentence in the selection that answers that question. Three minutes are allowed for this test. The content of the selection is science, the topic glass. The score is the total number of correct responses.

Test 3: Poetry Comprehension. This test contains 20 questions relating to a part of John Keat's poem "To Autumn." The examinee is directed to read the poem very carefully before

attempting to answer any of the questions about it. The answers are selected from numbered and bracketed phrases in the poem. Five minutes are allowed for this test. The score is the total number of questions answered correctly.

Test 4: Word Meaning. This test has been designed to measure understanding of words which often appear in materials used in the four major academic subjects: social science, science, mathematics, and English. The items consist of a statement which is correctly completed by one of five numbered words or phrases. The 70 items include 20 social science, 15 science, 15 math, and 20 English terms. Each part of the test has a time limit. Two minutes are allowed for the social science and English parts and one and a half minutes for the science and math sections. The numbers correct from each part are combined into a single score for this test.

Test 5: Sentence Meaning. This test contains 50 questions which the examinee answers as either "yes" or "no." The words in the sentence questions were from graded word lists. The "social frequency" of the terms used and of the content were also checked because the sentences assume that the reader has background information and a particular set of values. For example, two questions read: "Does allegiance to one's country imply

loyalty?" "Are desirable laws often hard to enforce?" Four minutes are allowed for this test. The score is the number of correct minus incorrect responses.

Test 6: Paragraph Comprehension. This test includes two specific aspects of paragraph comprehension: 1) the ability to select the central topic of the paragraph and 2) the ability to identify details essential to the meaning of the paragraph. Each of the 12 paragraphs is accompanied by three multiple-choice questions. The first question pertains to the central topic and the second and third pertain to essential details. For diagnostic purposes, the pattern of answers to the different type of questions can be analyzed. The norms for the test are based upon the total number of correct responses. Nine minutes are allowed for this test.

Test 7: Location of Information. This test consists of two parts. Part A, Use of the Index, contains 15 multiple-choice items relating to a short index contained in the test. Part B, Selection of Key Words, consists of 20 items. Each item includes a question followed by four key words. The examinee is to select the one that would not help locate information on that question. For example, one question and its option words reads:

What is the annual cost of damage done to crops by insects?

1) insects 2) boll weevil 3) wool 4) crops

Separate norms are provided for each part. The score for each is the total number correct. Three minutes are allowed for each part of the test.

Total Median Score. The raw scores for each of the nine subtests are converted into standard scores. Tables are provided to convert the standard scores into grade percentile rank for grades 9 through 12. The median standard score of the nine subtests is the Total Median Score. Tables are provided to convert the Total Median Score to percentiles for each grade.

Descriptions of the Samples

The 1944-1945 study represented the population for the whole state with a large sample, while the 1976 study controlled its sample with stratification.

1944-1945 Samples

Elementary and high schools participating in the 1944-1945 study volunteered after the project was introduced by the

Indiana State Department of Public Instruction. Although this did not allow for control of the number of schools of a particular size, type, or locality, the researchers at the time concluded that the samples were representative because they were 25 percent of the total population in each of the two grades and because the participating schools at each level were widely spread geographically over the state.

At each level, the participating schools were classified as either 1) "township," 2) "city," or 3) "special." The latter included "parochial, special, town, state laboratory, joint township, consolidated town and township, and joint town and township schools." No rationale for the classification distinction between "township" and some of the similar descriptions in the "special" category was reported.

Sixth grade sample. A total of 15,206 sixth graders from 648 elementary schools took part in the 1944-1945 testing. The schools included 388 township, 213 city, and 47 special schools. The number of sixth graders from each type were 5,799 township (38 percent of the sample); 8,313 city (55 percent of the sample); and 1,094 special (7 percent of the sample).

Tenth grade sample. A total of 11,424 sophomores from 243 high schools took part in the 1944-1945 testing. Of these,

3,257 (28 percent of the sample) were from 153 township schools; 7,232 (63 percent of the sample) were from 66 city schools; and 935 (9 percent of the sample) were from 24 special schools.

1976 Samples

About 8,000[6] sixth graders from 117 schools and about 7,000[6] tenth graders from 31 schools were tested in 1976. This represented approximately an 8 percent sample of the sixth grade and a 6 percent sample of the tenth grade population of the state. Consolidation and other factors made it impossible to draw the 1976 sample from any plan based on the specific participating schools in the 1944-1945 study. Therefore, it was decided to draw a sample stratified to guarantee a representative sample for the 1976 study.[7]

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6. These figures are approximate here because the numbers vary from subtest to subtest and on Total Median Score. This is so because not all subjects took all the subtests. All the scores for each subtest were averaged into the 1976 sixth and tenth grade means for that subtest. Only scores from subjects who completed all the subtests, however, were used in determining the Total Median Scores for the two grades.

7. John Hesemann of the Indiana Department of Public Instruction designed the sampling plan described in the following section.

Stratification. The samples were stratified on two variables--the region of the state and the type of community comprising the population center of the school corporation. Regions of the state were classified as follows:

1) North--approximately the area north of U.S. Route 40 excepting classification 2 and 3 below
2) Northwest--Lake, Porter, and LaPorte counties
3) Indianapolis area--Marion, Boone, Hamilton, Hendricks, Morgan, Johnson, Shelby, and Hancock counties
4) South--balance of the state

The communities were classified as one of the following five types, using the population figure of the area where the school corporation is centered:

1) Urban--school corporations with population centers exceeding 50,000 persons
2) Rural--school corporations with population centers of less than 10,000 persons
3) Large Town--school corporations with population centers of between 10,000 and 20,000
4) Small City--school corporations with population centers of between 20,000 and 50,000

5) Suburban--school corporation contiguous with those classified in type 1 above

The two stratifications created 20 cells (4 types by locality x 5 types of communities), and the total population figures for each cell were determined for sixth graders and for tenth graders. A previous study had classified each of Indiana's 305 school corporations according to the two variables and had selected a sample of 79 corporations proportionately representative of the corporations in the state according to their enrollment size.

Selection. For convenience and uniformity of testing, it was decided that all the sixth or tenth graders in the schools selected from the pool of 79 school corporations would be tested. The schools were chosen separately for each grade level and at random, using tables of random digits, until the desired number of subjects was reached for a particular cell. For example, in the Large Town-North cell, there was a total population of 2,702 sixth graders in 27 schools. Schools were selected at random until the 8 percent figure was exceeded. For this cell, 5 schools were selected. To reach the 7 percent sample for tenth graders in the same cell, it was necessary to select only one school, for the first drawn had 638 tenth grade students.

Several exceptions to the above procedure became necessary:

1) Two corporations randomly selected declined to participate. One was in the Rural-Indianapolis cell, in which there remained enough preselected schools in the pool to fill out the sample by random selection. The other was the larger of two corporations in the Urban-Northwest cell. Since removal of schools in this corporation significantly reduced the pool of schools available in this cell, another corporation (not in the originally selected 79) was added to the pool and replacement schools selected at random from it.

2) Two elementary schools in the Urban-North cell and one high school in the Suburban-Indianapolis cell declined to participate because of other recent testing activity. The elementary schools were replaced by a school recommended by the corporation, and the high school was replaced by another selected at random from the pool of available schools.

3) An elementary school in the Urban-Northwest cell and one in the Rural-Indianapolis cell no longer existed. In both cases they were replaced by the new schools whose

sixth graders included those formerly attending the schools which had been closed.

Problems that reduced the 1976 samples. From the original number of subjects tested, different numbers of subjects were lost on the various subtests. This was true because all children did not take all the subtests. When a subject did not have a score for each subtest, the scores he or she did have were figured in the mean for those subtests; but that subject's scores were not figured in the average Total Median Score. There were a sizeable number of sixth grade subjects without Rate scores, and when this difficulty was added to those subjects with Rate scores but missing another subtest score, the number of sixth graders whose scores contributed to the Mean Total Median Score was reduced by about 1,600. This reduction was much larger than that of any single subtest or of any of the tenth grade scores.

In addition, an unexplained phenomenon developed in computer processing that resulted in unusable data for less than a hundred of the 8,000 sixth-grade subjects. Since it was possible that the problem was traceable to the scanning of the answer sheets and would have required rescanning and reprocessing of all the data and since a spot check indicated these subjects were

distributed throughout the cell matrix, they were eliminated from the study. The computer problem experienced with data could not have happened in 1944-1945, but since that study dealt with over three times as many subjects, it is highly probable that the problem of subjects for whom there were missing subtest or rate scores occurred.

Processing the Data

The data for 1944-1945 were processed on Hollerith cards. No specific data processing equipment is mentioned, but card sorting and counting machines were probably used. The 1976 data was processed on a CDC 6600.

1944-1945 Processing

Coding. In 1945, the graded answer sheets were sent by the schools to the Indiana University School of Education, where they were inspected. Schools were consulted about any missing or questionable information and the data were coded and punched on Hollerith cards, which were processed.

ISRT score equivalents. The raw scores of the sixth grade data were translated into standard scores and then to corresponding grade equivalents. The standard score and corresponding

grade equivalent for the entire tests were determined by computing the Total Median Score of the eight separate tests. It was necessary in making these translations to consider and make an adjustment for the particular month in which the subject took the test in relation to the month in which his or her sixth year of schooling began.

The sophomore data consisted of nine subtests with a raw score to be translated into a standard score and then into a corresponding percentile for each subtest. The standard score and corresponding percentile for each subject on the total test was determined by computing the median standard score for the nine separate tests.

Presentation. The processed data were tabulated by school and organized by type of school, but the schools were identified by a code number only. Each school also received the results of its individual students with corresponding grade equivalents (sixth grade) or centiles (tenth grade) and quartile distribution for the subtests and for the total test. Knowing its code number, a school could also see how the average performance of its pupils compared to that of the pupils from each of the three types of schools.

For example, the sixth grade schools got the data on individual students as well as the following data for the total test on the schools by type: number of pupils in the school, mean standard score, corresponding grade equivalent, deviation from grade equivalent norm, and distribution of pupils around the norm. For each subtest, schools got each other's Mean Standard Score, corresponding grade equivalent, and deviation from the norm. The reports of the study offered detailed sample interpretations of the data to show the schools how to use the results for their own analyses, needs, and instructional action. Complete publication of the 1944-1945 data was prohibited by war shortages.

Processing the questionnaire data. The extra data collected on special forms filled out by the participating school personnel in the 1944-1945 study were compiled and analyzed by University personnel for summary in the report.

1976 Processing

Scanning the answer sheets. The answer sheets on which the subjects marked their answers were machine-scannable. These were scanned in stacks, so that all the front sides of the sheets in a stack were scanned first and then all the back sides for

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that stack were scanned. The scanned data were recorded on punched computer cards. The data for each side of the sheet include an identification number for the subject, and this information allowed the subsequent matching of the data from the two sides of each subject's answer sheet. The data on reading rate were not scannable and had to be key-punched at a later stage.

Computer processing. The data from the punched cards were processed using a series of computer programs written especially for the 1976 project. After the data from the two sides of each subject's answer sheet were matched, it was necessary to reorder it so that the answers would appear in the same sequence as the test items. Next, a scoring program checked each answer for correctness to produce a raw score for each subtest. A fourth program converted the raw scores to standard scores according to the tables in the test manual. Data for sixth graders had to be translated to grade equivalents, and that for tenth graders to percentiles. The sixth-grade data were then aggregated on a school-by-school basis.

Reading rate data. The data on reading rates had to be keypunched from handwritten responses on the answer sheets. The standard scores were figured by hand on the individual sheets,

and then the subject's identification number and standard score were keypunched. The cards resulting from this operation were matched with the data already in the computer, and the raw scores were appended to the other subtest scores.

Total Median Score. With all eight standard scores available for the sixth-grade subjects, a program was used to find the middle two and to average them, producing the Total Median Score. For the tenth grade, the Total Median Score was the middle of the nine standard scores. The Total Median Score was appended to each individual record. These records, then, consisted of the identification number, seven standard test scores for the sixth graders and eight for the tenth graders, the Total Median Score, and a Rate score; and they were used as the data for subsequent statistical analysis.

Survey data. Data was compiled from the questionnaires sent to the participating principals and teachers in the 1976 study. Of the 117 elementary schools, 47 returned a single representative questionnaire and 70 sent multiple questionnaires. The number of sixth grade teachers completing the questionnaire at these 70 schools ranged from 20 to 9. A total of 251 questionnaires were returned from the elementary schools.

From the 31 high schools taking part in the study, 108 questionnaires were returned. A single questionnaire was returned from each of 21 schools, and 87 came from 10 of the high schools.

In compiling data dealing with teachers or with teachers' opinions, all of the 251 elementary and 108 high school questionnaires were used. Certain items on the questionnaire sought information about the community and the school, and in compiling this data, one questionnaire was selected from each of the schools returning multiple questionnaires.

Reporting. This publication is the full initial report of this data processing. Since the study was designed as a then and now comparison, its purpose was quite different from the 1944-1945 study, which was aimed at giving the schools information that might determine instructional decisions. It was agreed from the outset that no individual school data would be returned to the schools in the 1976 study.

Part III

RESULTS

A grade equivalent comparison of the reading performance of the 1944-1945 Indiana sixth graders with those in 1976 shows little overall difference. With an adjustment for a 10-month age difference, however, the 1976 sample outscored their earlier counterparts on every subtest and on Total Median Score.

Unadjusted percentile averages for the Indiana tenth graders show a very slight advantage for the 1944-1945 sample. An adjustment for a 14-month age difference, however, indicates a dramatic improvement for the 1976 sophomores.

Age Differences in the Samples

The educational and societal factors to be considered in Part IV of this report suggest some interesting reasons for any differences that one might find in the reading achievement of children between 1944-1945 and 1976. One of these factors, however, is so important to the interpretation of the test data for both grades that it needs to be introduced at the outset of the presentation of the results of this comparative study. An analysis of the Census Bureau reports for 1940 and 1970[8] reveals that the average age of Indiana sixth graders at the time of the census in 1940 was 12 years and 4 months. In the 1970 census, the average age of Indiana sixth graders had fallen to 11 years and 6 months. It would be interesting to study the reasons for this 10-month decrease in average age.

It is known that retention was practiced in the schools in the 1940's much more than in the schools of the 1970's. As we shall see, by the time children in 1940 reached the tenth grade,

8. Census of the United States. U.S. Census Bureau: U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1940 and 1970.

they were an average of 14 months older than their 1976 counterparts, indicating that the impact of retention on the age of students increases at the higher grade levels. If retention is accepted as a major explanation of the age difference, one might argue that the 10-month advantage of the 1944-1945 sixth-grade sample represents, to some degree, more time in school or "school experience." Based on the 10-month difference in the average age of Indiana sixth graders in 1940 and in 1970, a new analysis for comparison seemed appropriate in this study. In this comparison, an age equivalent is determined for 1944-1945 and for 1976.

Census data from 1940 and 1970 show a 14-month age difference between 1940 Indiana tenth graders and 1970 Indiana tenth graders. It will be discussed in the presentation of the test data for the tenth grade. Tenth grade test data will be presented first as percentiles without adjustment and then as adjusted by using the percentiles for their school age group.

Because of the procedure necessary to arrive at age-equivalent comparisons for the two grades, the resulting age-equivalent scores for both sixth and tenth grades are referred to throughout this report as "adjusted" or "age-adjusted" scores.

They are, however, as reasonable a perspective on reading achievement as are grade equivalents.

In considering reading performance, it is as valid to norm by age as it is to norm by grade level equivalent. In fact, the 1943 elementary test manual makes this point by presenting both equivalents in its table for converting standard scores. In his 1961 study, Gates relied solely on age-equivalent comparisons that adjusted the reading scores of the children tested in 1947 before they were compared to those tested in 1937. Finch and Gillenwater considered chronological age differences in a 1949 study comparing the reading performance of 1931 sixth graders to those in 1949. The National Assessment of Educational Progress is designed to compare age equivalent groups over time.

Sixth-Grade Test Results

Comparison of the results from the sixth-grade testing for 1944-1945 and 1976 reveals that reading achievement at this level is about the same when the age difference is not considered. With adjustment for the age factor, the 1976 sample outscored their 1944-1945 counterparts on all subtests and on Total Median Score.

Unadjusted Sixth-Grade Results

Grade-equivalent norms. The 1944-1945 study reports its sixth-grade results as grade equivalents to norms given in the 1943 ISRT Manual of Directions. These are arrived at by deriving standard scores from raw scores on the eight subtests, by determining the Total Median Score, and by converting these nine scores into grade equivalents using a conversion table. Thus when this 1976 comparison refers to months above or below the norm, it means that the average score of the sample referred to is the score the 1943 test manual gives as the norm for that grade plus or minus that number of months. For example, the 1944-1945 sample is one month above the norm on the Directed Reading subtest and the 1976 sample is two months above. Thus the grade equivalent scores for 1976 sixth graders on this subtest averaged one month above the average score for the 1944-1945 students.

The test norms are based on a 10-month school year, and the grade equivalent scores based on these norms are expressed in whole numbers (for years) and decimals (for months). For example, 6.4 would mean four months into sixth grade.

The comparison. Before making the 10-month adjustment for the 1976 students, the grade equivalent comparison shows that the 1944-1945 sixth grade students scored at the grade norm on two subtests: Sentence Meaning and Use of Index; below the grade norm on four: Rate, Comprehension, Word Meaning, and Paragraph Comprehension; and above the grade norm on two: Directed Reading and Alphabetizing. (See Table 1.) The 1976 sixth graders scored at the grade norm on two subtests: Word Meaning and Sentence Meaning; below the grade norm on three: Rate, Comprehension, and Paragraph Comprehension; and above the grade norm on three: Directed Reading, Alphabetizing, and Use of Index. The 1944-1945 sixth graders scored at the grade norm on Total Median Score, while the 1976 subjects scored -.1 (or one month) below the grade norm before the 10-month age difference is considered.

The 1944-1945 sixth graders outscored their 1976 counterparts on two subtests: Rate and Paragraph Comprehension; but the 1976 sixth grade subjects scored higher than the 1944-1945 sample on four subtests: Directed Reading, Word Meaning, Alphabetizing, and Use of Index. The samples from the two periods scored the same on the subtests on Comprehension and Sentence Meaning when no adjustment for the 10-month difference in age is made.

Table 1

Grade Equivalent Comparison of Indiana Sixth Graders (1944-1945 and 1976) Based on Grade Norms for the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (RM Edition)-Elementary (1943)

Test	Months Above or Below Norm*-1944	Months Above or Below Norm*-1976	Change from 1944 to 1976 (+ or -)
1. Rate	- .4	- .6	- .2
2. Comprehension	- .5	- .5	0
3. Directed Reading	+ .1	+ .2	+ .1
4. Word Meaning	- .2	0	+ .2
5. Paragraph Comprehension	- .2	- .6	- .4
6. Sentence Meaning	0	0	0
7. Alphabetizing	+ .4	+1.2	+ .8
8. Use of Index	0	+ .4	+ .4
Total Median Score	0	- .1	- .1

* For both the 1944-1945 and 1976 students, the Norm Comparisons are grade equivalents provided in the Iowa Silent Reading Test: Manual of Directions (1943).

On the basis of the normed distributions and the standard error of measurement of the test, it was decided for the purposes of this study that differences by months of grade equivalence are not significnat educationally unless they are of three months or more. For the unadjusted sixth-grade scores, the four-month drop in Paragraph Comprehension between 1944-1945 and 1976, the eight-month gain in Alphabetizing, and the four-month gain on Use of Index between the two periods are here considered educationally significant.

T-Score comparison--sixth grade, unadjusted. In addition to the grade equivalent comparison in Table 1, the standard scores for the 1944-45 population and the 1976 population were converted to T scores. (See Table 2.) This conversion was done by using the mean and the standard deviation of the standard scores for each subtest. While the comparison of T scores is basically the same as the grade equivalent comparisons, the T-score comparison takes into account the different distributions of the scores for each of the subtests. In addition, the T-score comparisons tend to minimize small differences, which are probably of less significance anyway. This T-score comparison allows the reader to examine both grade equivalent and standard score (T-Score) comparisons.

Table 2

T-Score* Comparisons of Indiana Sixth Graders (1944-1945 and 1976) for the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (RM Edition)-Elementary (1943)

Test	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1944-45 Students	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1976 Students	Difference 1944 Minus 1976 T-Scores
1. Rate	47.4	46.9	- .5
2. Comprehension	45.3	45.3	0
3. Directed Reading	47.7	48.2	+ .5
4. Word Meaning	45.1	46.3	+ 1.2
5. Paragraph Comprehension	46.9	45.2	- 1.7
6. Sentence Meaning	47.2	47.2	0
7. Alphabetizing	49.9	52.4	+ 2.5
8. Use of Index	47.0	48.8	+ 1.8
Total Median Score	46.2	45.4	- .8

*T-Scores have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.

Adjusted Sixth-Grade Results

Considering the 10-month difference in age, the performance of the 1976 Indiana sixth graders exceeded that of their 1944-1945 counterparts on every test. To make this comparison, the age equivalents for the grade equivalents are taken from the test manual conversion table for the two periods; then the age adjustment is made in the 1976 scores. Since the average age of Indiana sixth graders at the time of the 1940 census was 12 years and 4 months and the average age of Indiana sixth graders at the time of the 1976 census was 11 years and 6 months, the adjusted age equivalent adds 10 months to the performance of the 1976 population because they are 10 months younger than were their 1944-1945 counterparts.

With the adjustment, the 1976 sample outscored the 1944-1945 sample significantly on every test, ranging from six months on Paragraph Comprehension to one year and eight months on Alphabetizing. With the adjustment, the 1976 gain on the Total Median Score is eight months. (See Table 3.)

The data in Tables 2 and 3 are translated into bar representation in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Bar Representation of the Comparison of Age Equivalence Performance (Years and Months) by 1944-1945 and 1976 Indiana Sixth Graders on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Elementary (1943) with Adjustment for the 10-Month Age Difference Between the Two Samples

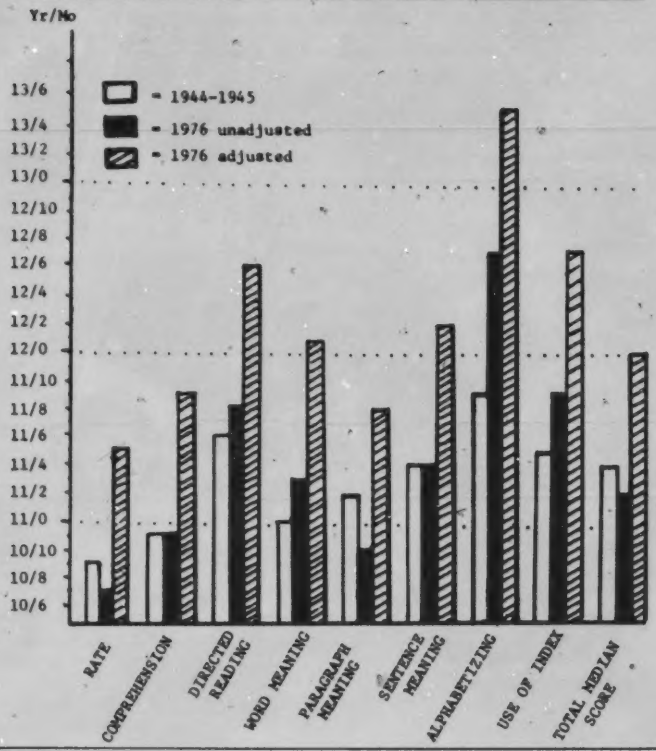


Table 3

Comparison of Age Equivalent Performance (Years and Months) by 1944-1945 and 1976 Indiana Sixth Graders on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Elementary (1943) with Adjustment for the 10-Month Age Difference Between the Two Samples

	Age Equivalent Performance: Years-Months			
Test	1944*	1976 Unadjusted*	1976 Adjusted**	Change from 1944 to 1976
Rate	10-9	10-7	11-5	+ 0-8
Comprehension	10-11	10-11	11-9	+ 0-10
Directed Reading	11-6	11-8	12-6	+ 1-0
Word Meaning	11-0	11-3	12-1	+ 1-1
Paragraph Comprehension	11-2	10-10	11-8	+ 0-6
Sentence Meaning	11-4	11-4	12-2	+ 0-10
Alphabetizing	11-9	12-7	13-5	+ 1-8
Use of Index	11-5	11-9	12-7	+ 1-2
Total Median Score	11-4	11-2	12-0	+ 0-8

* Determined from conversion table in the test manual.

** Since the 1976 sample 10 months younger than the 1944-1945 sample, the adjustment adds 10 months to the 1976 Age Equivalent Performance.

T-Score comparison--sixth grade, adjusted. As with the unadjusted sixth grade results, the mean standard scores were converted to T-Scores and compared. (See Table 4.) These T-Score comparisons are basically the same as the results with the age-equivalent comparisons in Table 3. However, small differences are minimized with T-Score comparisons.

Table 4

Comparison of T-Scores of Indiana Sixth Graders (1944-1945 and 1976) for the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (RM Edition)-Elementary (1943) with Adjustment for the 10-Month Age Difference Between the Two Samples

Test	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1944-45 Students	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1976 Students With Age Adjustment	Difference 1944 Minus 1976 T-Scores
1. Rate	47.4	48.9	+ 1.5
2. Comprehension	45.3	48.8	+ 3.5
3. Directed Reading	47.3	52.3	+ 5.0
4. Word Meaning	45.1	50.6	+ 5.5
5. Paragraph Comprehension	46.9	48.9	+ 2.0
6. Sentence Meaning	47.2	51.1	+ 3.9
7. Alphabetizing	49.9	54.2	+ 4.3
8. Use of Index	47.0	52.9	+ 5.9
Total Median Score	46.2	50.0	+ 3.8

46-431 O - 80 - 71

Table 5 breaks down the Total Median Score for the samples from both periods according to the number and percentage of subjects who scored at the sixth grade level or one, two, or three years behind or ahead of that level. The breakdown for the 1976 sixth graders is refigured after their scores are adjusted for the 10-month age difference. Since the grade equivalent norms for the test are represented as 10-month school years, each column in Table 5 represents a 10-month spread around the grade equivalent norm. Figure 2 translates percentage data in Table 5 into line representation.

The difference in comparing sixth grade scores with and without the adjustment for the age difference is clearly demonstrated in Figures 1 and 2. In Figure 2, the distribution curves for 1944-1945 and for 1976 are strikingly similar before the age difference is considered. After adjusting the 1976 scores, the curve for the 1976 sixth graders moves dramatically toward the higher end of the achievement spread.

Table 5

Distribution of Total Median Scores for 1944-1945 and 1976 Indiana Sixth Graders on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Elementary (1943), Showing Number of Subjects and Percentage of Total Samples According to Years Behind or Ahead of the Grade Equivalent Norm

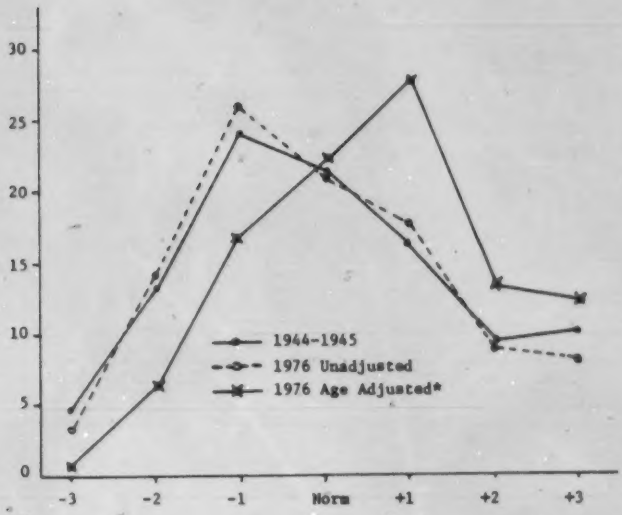
		Years Behind or Ahead of Norm*						
		-3	-2	-1	Norm	+1	+2	+3
1944-1945	#	707	2069	3727	3219	2498	1440	1546
	%	4.6	13.6	24.5	21.2	16.4	9.5	10.2
1976 Unadjusted	#	209	885	1626	1306	1124	571	510
	%	3.4	14.2	26.1	21.0	18.0	9.2	8.2
1976-Age Adjusted**	#	54	405	1086	1383	1731	816	780
	%	0.9	6.5	17.1	22.2	27.8	13.1	12.5

* The range for each column is 10 months.

** Since the 1976 sixth graders were, on an average, 10 months younger than the 1944-1945 sixth graders, the adjusted data adds 10 months to their Total Median Scores.

Figure 2

Line Representation of the Distribution of Total Median Scores for 1944-1945 and 1976 Indiana Sixth Graders on the Iowa Silent Reading Test (BM Edition)-Elementary (1943), Showing Percentage of Total Samples According to Years Behind or Ahead of the Grade Equivalent Norm.



* Since the 1976 sixth graders were, on an average, 10 months younger than the 1944-1945 sixth graders, the adjusted data adds 10 months to their Total Median Score.

Tenth-Grade Test Results

Without adjustment for the age difference, comparison of scores for the 1944-1945 and 1976 tenth graders shows that overall performance is basically unchanged; but when the 14-month difference in ages is taken into account, the 1976 sophomores score far above their 1944-1945 counterparts.

The advanced Iowa Silent Reading Tests (1939) uses percentiles rather than grade equivalents for norm interpretations. This means, for example, if a student scored at the 49th percentile, he or she scored equal to or better than 49 percent of the children of that grade on whom the test had been normed. A percentile score of 49 also means that 51 percent of the norm population scored higher than this particular student.

Unadjusted Tenth-Grade Test Results

When the age difference is ignored (See Table 6), the 1944-1945 tenth graders scored at higher percentiles than did the 1976 sample on five of the nine subtests: Comprehension, Poetry Comprehension, Word Meaning, Sentence Meaning, and Paragraph Comprehension. The 1976 sample scored higher on four subtests: Rate, Directed Reading, Use of Index, and Selection of Key Words. Total Median Score was down 2 percentile points in 1976.

Table 6

Percentile Comparisons of the Performance of Indiana Tenth-Grade Students in 1944-1945 and 1976 (Unadjusted) on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Advanced (1939)

Test	Percentile Ranking 1944*	Percentile Ranking 1976*	Change from 1944-1976 (+ or -)
1. [illegible]	45	51	+ 6
2. [illegible]omprehension	38	35	- 3
3. Directed Reading	37	41	+ 4
4. Poetry Comprehension	44	41	- 3
5. Word Meaning	41	39	- 2
6. Sentence Meaning	47	37	-10
7. Paragraph Comprehension	41	33	- 8
8. Use of Index	42	49	+ 7
9. Selection of Key Words	45	47	+ 2
Total Median Score	42	40	- 2

* For both the 1944 and 1976 students, the Norm comparisons are those provided in the Iowa Silent Reading Tests-Advanced Test: Manual of Directions (1939).

On the basis of the normed distributions and the standard error of measurement of the test, it was arbitrarily decided for this study to consider a percentile difference of three points as significant. With this point of view, (again ignoring the age difference) the following subtest scores are of special interest: Rate was up 6 percentiles in 1976; Comprehension and Poetry Comprehension were down 3 percentiles; and Directed Reading was up 4 percentiles. The largest changes were in Sentence Meaning, down 10 percentiles; Paragraph Comprehension, down 8 percentiles; and Use of Index, up 7 percentiles.

T-Score comparisons--tenth grade, unadjusted. As with the sixth grade results, the mean standard score for each subtest was converted to a T-Score. (See Table 7.) This conversion was done by using the mean and the standard deviation of the standard scores for each subtest. While this comparison of T-Scores is basically the same as the percentile differences, the T-Score comparison takes into account the different distributions of the scores for each of the subtests. In addition, the T-Score comparisons tend to minimize small differences, which are probably of less significance anyway. This T-Score comparison allows the reader to examine both grade equivalent and standard score (T-Score) comparisons.

Table 7

T-Score* Comparisons of Unadjusted Achievement of Indiana Tenth Graders (1944-45 and 1976) on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Advanced (1939)

Test	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1944-1945 Students	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1976 Students	Difference 1944-45 Minus 1976 T-Scores
1. Rate	49.1	50.4	+ 1.3
2. Comprehension	47.3	46.5	- .8
3. Directed Reading	46.7	47.8	+ 1.1
4. Poetry Comprehension	48.6	47.6	- 1.0
5. Word Meaning	47.3	46.8	- .5
6. Sentence Meaning	45.8	43.2	- 2.6
7. Paragraph Comprehension	47.4	45.3	- 2.1
8. Use of Index	47.5	50.0	+ 2.5
9. Selection of Key Words	48.9	49.5	+ .6
Total Median Score	48.0	47.4	- .6

* T-Scores have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.

Tenth-Grade Scores Adjusted for Age Difference

The 1940 and 1970 U.S. Census Bureau figures show that Indiana high school sophomores in the earlier period were, on an average, 14 months older than they were in 1970. Tenth graders' average age was 16 years, 7 months old in 1940 and 15 years, 5 months in 1970. This decrease in average age seems to be a logical extension of the age difference found for sixth graders for the same periods. While the difference at sixth grade was 10 months, it is reasonable to assume that if promotion policies in the late 1930's and early 140's tended to retain more students, the age differences would increase with grade levels.

In order to adjust the tenth grade scores for age difference, norm percentiles for ninth graders were used instead of those for tenth graders. Thus in this comparison, the scores for the 1976 tenth graders are based on norm groups that are about equal to the average age of 1976 students. Table 8 shows the marked improvement for the 1976 sophomores over their 1944-1945 counterparts on all the subtests except Sentence Meaning and Paragraph Comprehension, on which they scored one percentile higher and the same, respectively. Age-adjusted, the Total Median Score of the 1976 sample is up 10 percentile rank points. It is interesting to note that, with the adjustment, the 1976 sample scored

above the 50th percentile on five of the nine subtests and on the Total Median Score. This means that age considered, they performed better in these areas than a majority of the readers on whom the test had been originally normed. The data in Tables 7 and 9 are combined in Figure 3.

Table 8

Percentile Comparisons of the Performance of Indiana Tenth Grade Students in 1944-1945 and 1976 (Age-Adjusted) on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests, (BM Edition)-Advanced (1939)

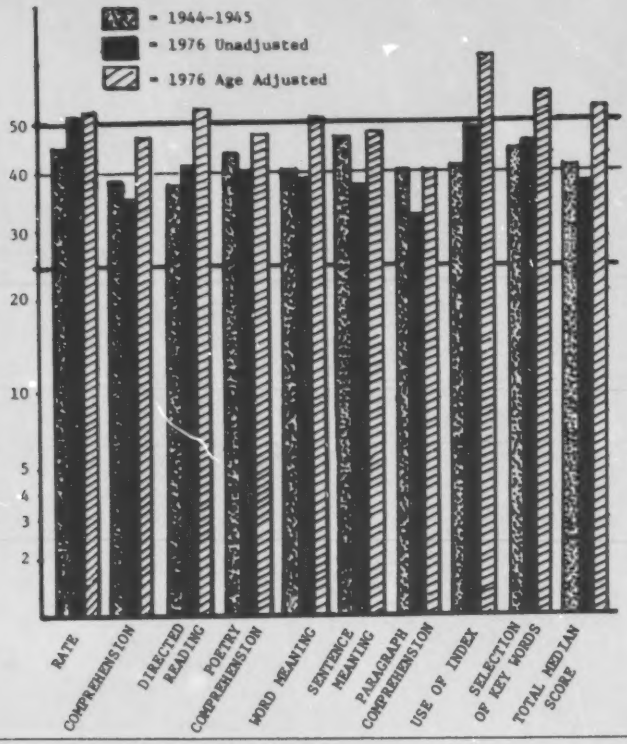
Tests	Percentile Ranking 1944	Percentile Ranking 1976*	Change from 1944 to 1976
Rate	45	52	+ 7
Comprehension	38	47	+ 9
Directed Reading	37	52	+ 15
Poetry Comprehension	44	48	+ 4
Word Meaning	41	51	+ 10
Sentence Meaning	47	48	+ 1
Paragraph Comprehension	41	41	0
Use of Index	42	62	+ 20
Selection of Key Words	45	55	+ 10
Total Median Score	42	52	+ 10

* These percentiles are derived by using the Norms given for ninth graders in the 1939 test manual. This adjusts for 12 months of the 14-month difference in the ages of the 1944-45 and 1976 samples.

The bar representations of percentiles for the nine subtests and for the Total Median Score demonstrate the close performance in 1944-1945 and in 1976 when age is not considered, and the marked improvement in the performance of the 1976 sample when compared to the 1939 norms for students their age.

Figure 3

A Bar Representation of Percentile Comparison of the Performance of Indiana Tenth Grade Students in 1944-1945 and That of Their 1976 Counterparts--Unadjusted and Age-Adjusted on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Advanced (1939)



T-Score comparison—tenth grade, adjusted. As with the unadjusted tenth grade results, the mean standard scores were converted to T-Scores and compared. T-Score comparisons are basically the same as the results with the percentile comparisons in Table 9. Small differences are minimized with T-Score comparisons.

Table 9

Comparison of T-Scores of Achievement of Indiana Tenth Graders (1944-45 and 1976) on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Advanced (1939) with Adjustment for the 14-Month Age Difference Between the Two Samples

Test	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1944-1945 Students	Mean T-Score Achieved by 1976 Students with Age Adjustment	Difference 1944-1945 Minus 1976 T-Scores
1. Rate	49.1	50.9	+ 1.8
2. Comprehension	47.3	50.0	+ 2.7
3. Directed Reading	46.7	50.0	+ 3.3
4. Poetry Comprehension	48.6	49.0	+ .4
5. Word Meaning	47.3	50.0	+ 2.7
6. Sentence Meaning	45.8	49.5	+ 3.7
7. Paragraph Comprehension	47.4	47.4	0
8. Use of Index	47.5	52.9	+ 5.4
9. Selection of Key Words	48.9	51.1	+ 2.2
Total Median Score	48.0	50.0	+ 2.0

Part IV

CONTEXT

Limited demographic and economic data suggest differences in the societal context of the 1944-1945 and the 1976 samples. In addition, dropout data for the two periods is significant to the interpretation of the tenth-grade test data.

The educational context for the two periods is sketched by comparable data gathered in the 1944-1945 and 1976 surveys.

A Contextual Interpretation

Any interpretation of data from tests given in time periods as far apart as 1944-1945 and 1976 ought to consider the contexts in which the data was collected. To do this so as to appropriately weigh all the possible variables that could have affected the results would be a massive task, and any attempt at a definitive analysis lay beyond the scope of this study.[9] In comparing the performance of students from periods separated by such a broad span of time, however, the study demanded some consideration of the probable influences of societal and educational factors, such as demographic changes in Indiana, changes in the economics of the two periods, and changes within the school between 1944-1945 and 1976.

This part of the report will note some societal data that exemplifies context differences between 1944-1945 and 1976. The effects that such differences might have on the performance of children on a standardized reading test are discussed in the last

9. Paula Blomenberg, who is in the process of writing her doctoral dissertation in reading at Indiana University is conducting a more intensive survey of the contextual societal and educational features in Indiana between 1940 and 1976. While consulting many other sources, she conducted the survey accompanying the 1976 administration of the tests. Her data are the source for most of the statistics in this part.

part of this report as tentative conclusions. Some of those effects, of course, come as children live and learn outside the school; but many of them which may have had more immediate impact on test performance are changes within the school--educational changes--which come about as a result of the societal changes. One factor, school dropout, has special potential for the analysis of the tenth-grade test data.

The survey data of the 1944-1945 testing were matched in the 1976 study, which also sought much additional information on the school setting. The survey data on the schools which could be matched between the two testing periods are presented here along with some general educational data available for the two periods; their possible impact on the test results are discussed under Conclusions, Part V.

Demographic Changes

As Indiana's population increased, it became more urban. Between 1940 and 1970, the state's total population grew over 50 percent from 3,427,796 to 5,302,000. In 1940 there was an average of 94.4 persons per square mile; in 1970 there was an average of

143.3 persons per square mile.[10] There are several reasons for the increase in Indiana's population.

Indiana industries began attracting more persons to the state during the World War II years, and thus this change in population was well underway when the 1944-1945 study was conducted. An indication of this growth, oddly enough, is found in the state's population drop of one percent during the World War II years. This drop is based on "in-residence" citizens--that is, Indiana citizens away from the state in the armed forces were counted as population loss. The one percent drop was only one-third of the drop experienced nationally, and it was equal in number to only one-fourth of the number of Hoosiers who went into the armed forces. Thus this drop actually indicates the beginning of an extended period when Indiana's industries were drawing new citizens into the state. The number of Black persons and persons of Spanish heritage nearly doubled between 1940 and 1970--from 3.6 to 7.1 percent of the population. Census figures show that

10. The statistics in this section are from the 1940 and 1970 U.S. Census Bureau Reports.

11 percent of the school population in 1976 was non-white, while in 1940 it had been .04 percent.

Population shifts. One of the societal changes most clearly documented for Indiana between 1940 and 1970 is an approximate 10 percent shift in population from rural to urban. The Bureau of Census figures show that the state's rural population decreased from 44.9 percent to 35.1 percent, the urban population increasing from 55.1 percent to 64.9 percent. And in rural Indiana, there was an increase in non-farm residents. The percentage of employed workers who were farmers decreased between 1940 and 1970 from 15 percent to 4.3 percent. This is a 70 percent drop within that occupation. (Other occupational shifts are discussed in a following section.)

These changes were evident in population shifts in Indiana that were still occurring in the 1970's. While the state's population increased slightly between 1970 and 1976, the number of residents decreased in 24 of 78 counties. A study of these counties indicates that this is a shift toward the suburbs around larger population centers. The number of non-rural communities (those with more than 2,500 persons) had increased from 98 in

1940 to 151 in 1970; and urban areas--those with 100,000 or more persons--had increased from four to six in that period. These six areas do not include highly populated Indiana areas that are contiguous to urban areas in other states, such as Cincinnati and Louisville.

Economic Changes

The prosperity of Indiana citizens increased between 1944-1945 and 1976 and was accompanied by an occupational shift.

Per capita income. The real dollar income of Indiana citizens was almost twice as high in the 1970's as it was in the 1940's. Using the 1972 dollar value, for which conversion ratios are available,[11] the $541 per capita income figure for 1940 translates to $1,858. The figure for 1976 is $5,624 and translates into 4,693 1972 dollars. In spite of higher taxation, this represents a significant increase in the affluence of Indiana citizens.

Occupational shifts. An analysis of the percentage changes in types of occupations in the Indiana work force between the

11. The 1972 dollar was used with conversion ratios in an Economic Report of the President transmitted to Congress (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government), 1977.

1940's and 1970's gives a general indication of a population with many persons moving from common laboring types of jobs to service-type and more specialized--presumably higher paying--jobs. The percent of Indiana workers who were craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers increased only 1.5 percent between 1940 and 1970; but professional and technical non-domestic service workers increased over 5 percent. Laborers--including farm laborers--decreased by 7.4 percent and domestics from 1.1 to .2 percent. The percentage of workers who were farmers and farm managers decreased from 12.7 and 2.1 percent and this reduced number of farmers were farming an average 165-acre farm compared to the average 107-acre farm in 1940.

A look at the percentage of workers in manufacturing in Indiana indicates that aside from the wage increase indicated by per capita income, manufacturing's role in the economy was probably very similar in 1944-1945 and 1976. The percentage had risen from 30.4 percent in 1940 to 35.6 percent in 1970. By 1970, however, it was several points higher than it was to be in 1976. By 1977, it was about 33 percent. In 1940, 5 of 10 new jobs were in manufacturing, while by 1977 only 3 of 10 were.

School Dropout

Related closely to World War II and to results of societal changes, school dropout data may have special significance to the comparison of tenth grade achievement between 1944-1945 and 1976.

Generally, more Indiana children have stayed in school longer over the years. According to Bureau of Statistics figures, the average Indiana citizen had 7.5 years of schooling in 1940 and 12.1 years in 1976. Census figures indicate that in 1940, the legal age for dropping out of school came between the ninth and tenth grade or in the course of the tenth grade. An impetus for dropping out of school in 1944-1945 was created by World War II. After an unemployment rate of 14 percent in 1940 (Census), there were, in mid-1943, when production was at its peak, jobs available in defense industries for those who wanted them; and about this time industry began hiring minors for full-time work. Many teenagers turning 16 found the high pay of such a job with all its overtime more attractive than struggling with school. By 1944, the job market was drying up as servicemen returned; there was concern in the state about a general increase in unemployment, and there were layoffs in some industries. A sizeable number of youngsters

who would have been sophomores tested in the 1944-1945 study, however, had entered the job market before mid 1944.

The percentage of dropouts in grades 7-12 in the 1975-1976 academic year for the state of Indiana was 4.43 percent.[12] The dropout rate in the 1943-1945 period was much larger. For example, in 1943-1944, there were 52,661 ninth grade students in public schools in Indiana. In 1944-1945, when these same students would have been in tenth grade, the population of tenth grade students was only 45,061, a decrease of 14 percent. The reasons for this alarming dropout rate were studied by the Indiana Department of Public Instruction:

> *In December, 1943, Dr. C. T. Malan, State Superintendent, estimated that more than 18,000 students, or about one-tenth of the total high school enrollment, had given up classroom exercises in favor of military service or defense work. A survey conducted by this office showed that in the two years following the outbreak of the war, 2,975 boys had dropped out of school to join the service and that 8,025 had chosen to work rather than study. Almost as alarming was the fact that 7,456 girls had left school*

12. A dropout is a student who withdrew during the 1975-1976 school year and did not re-enroll in another public school during the school year. This information was provided by the Division of Educational Information and Research, Department of Public Instruction, Harold H. Negley, Superintendent.

> *before finishing their secondary education. Although many of these girls were attracted by high paying positions in industry, others simply chose to marry high school classmates and travel with them from service training camp to camp in preference to staying at home and completing work for their high school diplomas.* [Carnes, 1955, pp. 599-600.]

Another study of the problem (State of Indiana Department of Public Instruction [IDPI], September, 1946) placed ninth grade dropout in 1943-1944 at 10.3 percent of that population and tenth grade dropout in 1944-1945 at 11.1 percent. These figures, however, did not include students who dropped out during the second (spring) semesters of those years. A survey of Indiana principals indicated the prevalent reasons for dropping out of school:

	Percentage of Dropout
Going to work for wages	24.0
Joining the armed forces	20.0
Poor school marks and dislike of school, or lack of interest	10.2
Marriage	9.5
Reaching the age of 16	8.0
Other reasons combined	28.3

The report noted that the withdrawal of boys due to induction in the armed forces posed special educational problems.

Educational Changes

The societal phenomena and changes in Indiana between 1944-1945 must certainly have effected changes in the state's schools, and the performance of children in those schools on standardized tests would become a link in that causal chain. The sixth-grade surveys conducted in 1944-1945 and in 1976 afford comparison of the school context on several revealing factors[13] that figure in the conclusions of this study (Part V).

Sixth-Grade Survey: 1944-1945 and 1976

Responses were received from 117 elementary schools (100 percent of the sample) in the 1976 survey. From 47 of these, one response was received; multiple responses, ranging from 2 to 9, were received from 70 schools. The total number of responses was 251. For the items dealing with school data, one questionnaire for each school with multiple responses was selected. All 251 were compiled for the items dealing with teacher and class information.

13. In addition, the 1976 survey collected data on several additional factors. Blomenberg is collecting correlating data for the 1940's for her more intensive analysis of the relationship of school context to performance on the ISRT.

Seven questions on the 1976 sixth-grade survey had been asked of the teachers and principals in the 1944-1945 survey and were reported. Thus comparative data can be reported for those aspects of the educational context. The information from the questions generated data on 1) length of school year, 2) number of elementary classrooms in the building, 3) number of sixth graders in the school, 4) number of grades in classroom, 5) number of class minutes given daily to reading, 6) number of class minutes given weekly to reading, and 7) whether reading was taught as a separate subject, with social studies, or both.

Length of school year. The 1976 sample had the advantage of longer school years. The data presented in Table 10 shows that the average school year in 1944-1945 was 8.6 months, while in 1976, it was 9.4 months. None of the 1976 schools reported a school year shorter than 9 months; over half of the schools in the earlier study did. Although the 1944-1945 study shows no evidence that this factor affected performance on the ISRT, any assumed advantage must go to the 1976 sixth graders.

Table 10

Length of School Year (in Months) in Indiana for Sixth Graders in 1944-1945 and 1976

	1944-1945		1976	
Months	# of Schools	% of Schools	# of Schools	% of Schools
8	373	51	0	0
8½	4	.5	0	0
9	260	35.6	3	1.2
9¼	13	1.8	109	44.5
9½	52	7.1	113	46
10	29	4.0	26	8.1
Average:	8.6 months		9.4 months	

Although the 1944-1945 report concluded that length of school year did not relate significantly to performance on the ISRT, another Indiana study (State of Indiana Department of Public Instruction [IDPI], 1944) concluded that sixth graders from schools with longer school years did perform significantly better on the Intermediate Language Arts Tests of the Stanford Achievement Test, Form DM (pp. 63, 64).

Number of elementary classrooms in the building. There were nearly three times as many classrooms in the 1976 school as there were in the 1944-1945 school. In the earlier study, there were 79 one-room schools reporting; there was only one in the 1976 study. As Table 11 shows, a majority of the 1976 schools reported over 10 rooms, while a majority of those in 1944-1945 had under 5. The averages are about 4.9 for 1944-1945 and 12 for 1976.

Again the 1944-1945 study using the ISRT did not find this factor significantly related to performance, but the 1944 IDPI study using the Stanford found the impact of this factor mixed depending on the subtest. Higher achievement generally related to multiple-room schools (pp. 73, 74).

Table 11

Number of Elementary Classrooms in the Building for Indiana Sixth Grades, 1944-1945 and 1976

	1944-45			1976		
Number of Classrooms	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Cum %	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Cum %
1	79	11.4	11.4	1	.4	.4
2	85	12.3	23.7	2	.8	1.3
3	101	14.6	38.3	8	3.4	4.6
4	83	12.0	50.3	2	.8	5.5
5	40	5.8	56.1	3	1.3	6.7
6	89	12.9	69.0	12	5.0	11.8
7	36	5.2	74.2	2	.8	12.6
8	73	10.6	84.8	6	2.5	15.1
9	25	3.6	88.4	19	8.0	23.1
10	79	11.4	99.8	13	5.5	28.6
11-15*	0			63	25.1	55.0
16-19*	0			63	26.6	81.5
20+	0			44	18.5	100.0
Average	4.9 classrooms			12 classrooms		

* In averaging, the figures for gradation on this and other tables in this section that span more than one increment are figured at the median figure, at the top figure for lowest spans, and at the bottom figure for top spans.

Number of sixth graders in the school. Table 12 shows the growth in school enrollment between 1944-1945 and 1976. Thirteen percent of the schools in the earlier sample reported having five or less sixth graders; 87 percent of the schools had from 16 to 55. In 1976, the sample schools started at a point where 45 percent of the earlier sample left off, and 61 percent of the 1976 schools had more sixth graders than any of those in the 1944-1945 sample.

Table 12

Number of Sixth Graders in the School for Indiana Schools in 1944-1945 and 1976

	1944-1945			1976		
Number of Students	Number of Schools	% of Schools	Cum %	Number of Schools	% of Schools	Cum %
1- 5	96	13.0	13.0			
6-10	123	16.8	29.8			
11-15	120	16.4	45.2			
16-20	101	13.8	59.0	1	.9	0.9
21-25	88	12.0	71.0	6	4.6	5.5
26-30	69	9.4	80.4	5	3.9	9.4
31-35	56	7.7	88.1	3	2.3	11.7
36-40	27	3.7	91.8	8	6.2	17.9
41-45	17	2.3	94.1	9	7.0	24.9
46-50	13	1.8	95.9	9	7.0	31.9
51-55	21	2.9	98.8	9	7.0	38.9
56-65				16	12.0	51.2
66-75				5	3.9	55.1
76-100				28	21.7	76.8
101-125				13	9.9	76.7
125-150				4	3.1	89.8
151-175				5	3.9	93.7
176-200				1	0.9	94.6
200-300				4	3.1	97.7
300+				3	2.3	100.0

Number of grades in the classroom. More classrooms in 1944-1945 contained children at more than one level than did the classrooms of the 1976 sample. Table 13 shows that less than 7 percent of the classrooms in the 1976 study housed more than one grade, while in 1944-1945, 62 percent had more than one grade; 58 (8.3 percent) had eight. With the exception of these one-room schoolhouses, however, over 70 percent had two or less and another 19.7 percent had less than five. The average for 1944-1945 was 2.5.

The 1944 IDPI found that "in general, high achievement is most closely related to schools of 5-21 rooms." (pp. 73, 74.) Such schools would be less likely to mix grades in one room.

Table 13

Number of Grades in the Classroom for Indiana Sixth Grades, 1944-1945 and 1976

	1944-1945			1976		
Number of Grades	Number of Schools	% of Schools	Cum %	Number of Schools	% of Schools	Cum %
1	197	27.6	28.0	229	93.5	93.5
2	301	42.2	70.8	14	5.7	99.2
3	68	9.5	80.5	2	.8	100.0
4	70	9.8	90.5			
5	9	1.3	91.5			
6	5	.7	92.2			
7	4	.6	91.8			
8	58	8.1	100.0			
Averages:	2.5 grades			1.08 grades		

Number of class minutes given daily to reading. Table 14 shows that teachers in the 1976 sample were giving more than half again as much more daily time to teaching reading than those in the earlier sample. Over 80 percent of the 1976 teachers gave reading instruction 50 or more minutes a day, while 87.5 percent of the 1944-1945 teachers devoted 50 minutes or less to teaching reading. The earlier responses are evenly distributed along the time-line, with over 60 percent of the teachers devoting from 30 to 50 minutes a day to reading instruction.

Surprisingly, the earlier study using the ISRT could not conclude from its analysis that longer periods of instruction improved achievement; but if it does, the 1976 sixth graders had the advantage. Even more surprising, the 1944 IDPI study using the Stanford found an inverse relationship between time spent on reading instruction and performance on particular subtests (pp. 56, 57.)

Table 14

Number of Class Minutes Given Daily to Teaching Reading to Indiana Sixth Graders, 1944-1945 and 1976

Class Minutes	1944-1945 Number of Schools	1944-1945 % of Schools	1944-1945 Cum %	1976 Number of Schools	1976 % of Schools	1976 Cum %
10	17	2.5	2.5	0	0	0
15	41	6.0	9.3	1	.4	.4
20	54	7.9	17.2	1	.4	.8
25	42	6.1	23.3	0	0	.8
30	119	17.4	40.7	8	3.4	4.2
35	44	6.4	47.1	1	.4	4.6
40	119	17.4	74.5	11	4.6	9.2
45	64	9.3	73.8	18	7.6	16.8
50	94	13.7	87.5	34	14.3	31.1
55	8	1.2	88.7	15	6.3	37.4
60	65	9.5	98.2	69	29.0	66.4
65	2	.3	98.5	7	2.9	69.3
70+	6	.9	100.0	72	30.7	100.0
Averages:		37 minutes			58 minutes	

Number of class minutes given weekly to reading. The data in Table 15 on class minutes given weekly to reading shows that the 1976 sample had the advantage of more reading instruction: 86.6 percent of the teachers who responded in the 1944-1945 survey reported teaching reading less than 250 minutes a week and 62.1 percent of those responding in the 1976 survey reported teaching it more than 254 minutes. As with the minutes daily, the 1976 average is more than half again as long as the 1944-1945 average.

Table 15

Number of Class Minutes Given Weekly to Teaching Reading in Indiana Sixth Grades, 1944-1945 and 1976

	1944-1945			1976		
Minutes Weekly	Number of Schools	% of Schools	Cum %	Number of Schools	% of Schools	Cum %
Up to 90	115	16.6	16.6	0	0	0
90-175	181	26.1	42.7	9	4.7	4.7
176-254	304	43.9	86.6	62	33.2	37.9
255-354	80	11.5	98.1	71	38.0	75.9
355-374	4	.5	98.6	6	3.2	79.1
375 +	7	1.0	99.6	39	20.8	99.9
Averages:	184 minutes			283 minutes		

Reading taught as a separate subject, with social studies (other content areas), or both. Perhaps because this question was rephrased in 1976 to ask whether reading was taught in combination with "other content area subjects" rather than with "social studies," three times as many 1976 teachers said that they were teaching reading both as a subject in itself and with another subject, as shown in Table 16. Another probable explanation is the contemporary emphasis placed on making reading real by teaching it as children actually read from their texts. In both surveys, fewest teachers said they taught reading only as a part of social studies or another subject.

Table 16

Reading Taught as a Separate Subject, with Social Studies, or Both* in Indiana Sixth Grades in 1944-1945 and 1976

	1944-1945			1976		
	# of Classes	% of Classes	Cum %	# of Classes	% of Classes	Cum %
Separate Subject	684	44.5	44.5	59	24.2	25.5
With Social Studies (Content Area)	282	18.3	62.8	5	2.0	27.5
Both	571	37.2	100.0	180	73.8	100.0

* The 1976 teachers were asked whether they taught reading combined with "other content area subjects" rather than with "social studies."

Tenth-Grade Survey: 1944-1945 and 1976

Tenth grade teachers at each of 31 schools housing the sample tenth grade population (100 percent of the school sample) completed the "then and now" questionnaire. One questionnaire was received from each of 21 schools taking part in the study. The remaining 10 schools sent multiple questionnaires. The number of tenth grade teachers completing the questionnaire at these schools ranged from 2 to 12. The total number of questionnaires received from teachers was 108.

Survey data on only two factors were reported in the 1944-1945 study: Length of School Year and Size of the School (enrollment). The 1976 study did not survey the latter, but asked instead the size of the sophomore class. Thus the length of school year is the only comparable factor available from the studies. The 1976 survey asked for a report in days. The data for 1944-1945 is reported by months in Table 17 and that for 1976 in days is reported in the paragraph following the table.

Table 17

Length of School Year for Indiana Tenth Grades, 1944-1945

Months	# of Schools	% of Schools	Cum %
8	142	59	59
8½	6	3	62
9	5	31	93
9¼	1	0	93
9½	5	2	95
10	11	5	100

In 1976, 30 of the 31 schools responded to this question. The length of the school year ranged from 175 days to 185 days; 43.3 percent (13 schools) had a school year consisting of 180 days. Considering vacation time, the 180-day school year correlates approximately with the 9-month school year, which 31 percent of the 1944-1945 sample reported. Generally, the school year for earlier sample tended to be shorter.

Part V

CONCLUSIONS

Because there was little difference in the grade equivalent performance of the 1944-1945 and 1976 students on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests and because the age-adjusted performance of the 1976 students was markedly higher than their 1944-1945 counterparts, the assumption that the reading abilities of students is declining is unsupported by this study.

Continued study of the various context factors is needed to substantiate the indications that certain societal and educational factors favor the samples from one time period or the other. More comparison studies that attempt to overcome the difficulties inherent in comparing the achievement of broad samples of students over long periods of time are also recommended.

The Indication That Students Are Reading Better Recommends Additional Research

The major conclusion of this study is drawn from the test data of the two periods and argues that the comparison of scores from the Indiana samples from the two periods has important implications in the light of the current concern about reading education.

Since the study must conclude that current educational decisions are being made on assumptions that this data contradicts (Conclusion 2), it offers as a final general conclusion several recommendations for future research that can aid in the interpretation of the data from this study and in informing those whose decisions may affect future reading education.

Conclusion 1: The Reading Skills Achievement of Today's Children Appears to be Higher Than That of Children from Years Past

Disregarding the age differences of the samples from the two periods tested in this study, the reading achievement of Indiana sixth and tenth graders, as measured by the Iowa Silent Reading Tests-BM Edition (1943, 1939), was about the same in 1976 as it was in 1944-1945.

When the 10-month age difference in the sixth-grade samples and the 14-month age difference in the tenth-grade samples are considered, the achievement of the 1976 students was markedly higher than their 1944-1945 counterparts. In addition, the possibility that dropouts could have made an even greater difference in the tenth-grade samples recommends consideration of dropout data in the interpretation of the tenth-grade test results.

Unadjusted ISRT Scores Show Little Difference in Performance

Using only grade equivalent norms for the sixth graders, and grade equivalent percentile rank norms for the tenth graders, Indiana students from 1944-1945 and from 1976 scored about the same on the ISRT.

Sixth grade. On a strict grade-equivalent comparison--with no consideration of the 10-month age difference, the 1976 sixth graders outscored the 1944-1945 sample on four of the eight subtests and scored at the same grade equivalent on two. The 1944-1945 sixth graders scored one month higher on Total Median Score. On only three of the subtests were differences of three months or more found between the samples. The earlier sample scored four months higher than the 1976 sample on Paragraph Comprehension, and the 1976 sixth graders scored eight months higher than their

earlier counterparts on Alphabetizing and four months higher on Use of Index. Those who would place higher significance on Paragraph Comprehension than on other subtests should note that the two samples scored the same on the Comprehension and Sentence Meaning subtests and that the 1976 sample scored higher than the 1944-1945 sample on the Word Meaning subtest. Overall, there was very little grade equivalent difference for sixth graders over the 30-year span.

Tenth grade. At the tenth grade, where ISRT achievement scores can be translated into normed grade equivalents or percentiles, there is relatively little difference in the overall performance of the 1944-1945 sophomores and the unadjusted performance of the 1976 samples. The 1976 tenth graders scored higher than their earlier counterparts on four of the subtests and were outscored by the 1944-1945 sophomores on five subtests and on Total Median Score. On three of the subtests on which they scored higher than the 1944-1945 sophomores, the 1976 sample excelled by more than three percentiles, the point at which this study arbitrarily decided differences are especially meaningful. The earlier sample excelled by more than three percentiles on two subtests. The difference for Total Median Score was two percentiles. Thus the overall performance difference is slight.

With Adjustment for Age Differences

The 1976 Students Scored Markedly Higher

Since the manual for the 1943 edition of the Elementary ISRT provides a conversion table to translate standard scores into either normed age or grade equivalents, it was possible to make a comparison that adjusted for the 10-month difference in the 1944-1945 and 1976 sixth graders by taking the corresponding age equivalents for the average scores of the samples from the two periods and adding 10 months to the age equivalent of the 1976 sample.

To make a comparison for the achievement of the tenth graders of the two periods that adjusted for the 14-month difference in age, the 1976 percentiles were taken at the ninth grade norms instead of at the tenth grade norms.

Sixth grade comparison--adjusted. When the average standard scores for the sixth graders are translated into corresponding age equivalent norms and 10 months are added to the age equivalents of the 1976 sample, the latter scored from 6 to 20 months higher than the 1944-1945 sixth graders, depending on the particular subtest score considered. The difference for Total Median Score was 8 months.

Tenth grade comparison--adjusted. In comparing achievement on the 1939 edition of the Advanced ISRT by converting the 1944-

1945 scores to percentiles normed for the tenth grade and the 1976 scores to percentiles normed for the ninth grade, one can adjust for 12 of the 14-month age difference between the samples.

With this adjustment, the 1976 sophomores outscored those in 1944-1945 on eight of the nine subtest scores. On six of these, the differences were from 7 to 20 percentiles. On the other subtest score, Paragraph Comprehension, the adjusted 1976 score is the same as in 1944-1945; and on Total Median Score, the 1976 sophomores scored 10 percentiles higher than the earlier sample when age is considered.

The Adjustment for Age Is a Valid Attempt to Equate 1944-1945 and 1976 Experience

Not only do precedents for considering age-equivalent instead of grade equivalent comparisons recommend the adjustment for age differences in this study, but those differences can logically be argued to represent more school experience for the 1944-1945 samples. The age differences appear to be explained by the stricter retention policies of the schools of the earlier period. If the average sixth grader has been held back for the better part of a school year, he has been receiving classroom instruction that much longer.

It is interesting to note, also, that in the light of differences in admission policies between the periods, the 10- and 14-month age difference figures are probably minimal. In the 1940's, children were allowed to begin school in the fall or in the spring semester, and the fall admission, for example, was allowed if the child would be turning five (for kindergarten) or six (for first grade) before the end of the calendar year. Contemporary Indiana policies allow admission only in the fall and usually the child must be the entrance age by November. The effect of this difference in policies would be to make the 1976 students older--not younger--than the 1944-1945 students and suggests that the 10- and 14-month differences could be minimal.

Two Other Factors Need Special Consideration in Interpreting the Data

In addition to the difference in ages between the samples. interpretation of the data should consider the probable effect of dropout on the tenth-grade data and the possible bias of the measurement instrument in favor of the 1944-1945 sixth and tenth graders.

Dropout May Have Eliminated Many Low Achievers from the 1944-1945 Sample

It seems appropriate in interpreting the tenth-grade data to consider the possibility that a difference in the dropout rate between the two periods tested could mean that the spread of abilities within each of the two samples differed to a degree that could significantly favor the 1944-1945 sample. The enrollment of the 1944-1945 Indiana sophomore class was 14 percent lower than the enrollment for the same class the year before, when they were ninth graders.

Although this study has found no corresponding dropout rate for the years 1975-1976, it has found in U.S. Census data that the average number of years of schooling for an Indiana citizen rose 4.6 years between 1940 and 1970. It seems apparent that along with other factors, the increasing value that our society has placed on education has encouraged young persons to stay in school longer. This clearly indicates that the school dropout rate between 1944 and 1976 declined. In addition, the data showing a 14 percent dropout for the 1944-1945 sophomores between their ninth and tenth year in school indicates that many of the 1943-1944 ninth graders who dropped out of school were attracted to lucrative jobs in wartime industry.

It is probable that these youngsters included many for whom success in school had not come easily. If this was true, they were probably heavily weighted to the lower end of the general ability scale and included many youngsters with a variety of learning problems. This would mean that the sample drawn from the 1944-1945 sophomore class included proportionately fewer subjects who might score poorly on the ISRT than a sample from tenth-grade classes of subsequent years, when the job market became more crowded and a generally more positive attitude toward the benefits of education led to a decreasing number of dropouts. This observation suggests that the reported test score differences favoring the 1976 sample are probably minimal, because had the 1944-1945 sophomore class included the spread of abilities it had in its freshman year, its average scores could have been lower

The Measurement Instrument May Have Been Biased to the Advantage of 1944-1945 Students

The curriculum that frames the instruction of students has a direct impact on the achievement of those students. A fair measurement of that achievement will use an instrument that is designed to measure what that curriculum professes to teach. Both critics and defenders of contemporary curricula will agree that

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they are different from those of the mid 1940's. This is true because curricula have developed in an attempt to respond to societal changes that dictate different needs and values. That is, children today, it is argued, are taught to read within curricula designed for the 1970's. Normally, their reading achievement is assessed with instruments designed to measure what those curricula stress in instruction.

In order to compare the achievement of students instructed under different curricula prevalent in two different time periods, it was decided to measure the samples from both periods with the same instrument. Since the 1944-1945 study could not be repeated, it was necessary to use the instrument used in that period--the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (BM Edition)-Elementary (1943) and Advanced (1939).

Thus, by necessity, a bias favoring the 1944-1945 students may have been built into the comparison with the 1976 students. Since the 1943 and 1939 versions of the ISRT were built to measure the curricula of that period, it is possible that the questions asked on the instrument were more likely to relate to what was valued, stressed, and taught in the earlier period than to the experience of the 1976 students.

If such a bias is a fact of this study, it is interesting that the performance of the 1976 students was approximately equal to their 1944-1945 counterparts on a strict grade level comparison and was markedly superior on comparison that considers the fact they were considerably younger.

Purpose of the ISRT. The general purpose underlying the 1943 Elementary and the 1939 Advanced ISRT was to assess what was a shift in the curriculum of the schools. Prior to the development of the ISRT, the emphasis in the elementary reading curriculum was on oral reading. Correct pronounciation, oral reading with appropriate intonation, and such things as voice projection and enunciation were emphasized. However, the curriculum had shifted to one in which understanding and applying what was read became more important. Silent reading of a variety of types of material took on greater emphasis. The ISRT was developed to assess the objectives of silent reading comprehension. The authors of the ISRT state the emphasis in this way: "Life situations demand an ability to grasp quickly and accurately the meaning of printed symbols. Only infrequently are we called upon to read orally."

On the Advanced test, the application of this principle related to the assessment of silent reading comprehension in

content subjects such as history, geography, mathematics, science, and literature. The test authors contend that "progress in those subjects depends to a greater degree upon the ability of pupils to read rapidly and intelligently than upon any other single factor."

The attempt to assess comprehension and understanding on the ISRT led to the development of tests which sometimes assessed knowledge which a student might bring to the test rather than knowledge gained through reading. This is perhaps most noticeable on the Sentence Meaning subtest. On this subtest, examinees are to respond to questions with "yes" or "no." Questions on the Elementary Sentence Meaning subtest include:

- Is the Fourth of July a national holiday?
- Is manufacturing an important industry in America?
- Is it necessary for the President of the United States to be a citizen?
- Is treason to one's country punishable by death?

Advanced Sentence Meaning subtest questions include "Does fresh air inhibit the action of bacteria that cause tuberculosis?"

Some of the questions on the Sentence Meaning subtests seem to assess values or to call for a kind of moral judgment. The Elementary test asks:

- Does the United States need to save its forests?
- Is a conservative person usually radical in his point of view?
- Is it a good thing for a person to maintain his credit?
- Does a witness always tell the truth?

Value judgment in Sentence Meaning questions on the Advanced test include:

- Does allegiance to one's country imply loyalty?
- Is disagreement among the members of Parliament unusual?
- Is harmony between nations encouraged by the League of Nations?

Time bias. The administration of the 1943 ISRT caused some serious difficulties for the 1976 students; many were unable to complete the tests in the time allocated because their test-taking experience had not prepared them for the need to respond within such severe time limitations. At the time the ISRT was being developed, general belief guiding test construction was that the tests should be timed very carefully and that achievement should be dependent in part on rate.

From 1943 to 1970, test construction theory changed. Achievement tests were built so that time had less impact on the results. The concern became assessing "power" rather than a combination of "power and rate."

This change of philosophy in test construction can be described best by examining the difference between two subtests on the 1943 Elementary and 1939 Advanced ISRT and 1973 revisions.[14]

Elementary

Subtest	1943 ISRT		1973 ISRT	
	No. of Test Items	Time	No. of Test Items	Time
Word Meaning	55	9 min	50	15 min
Paragraph Comprehension	30	7 min	38	28 min

14. Farr, Roger (Ed.). Iowa Silent Reading Tests: Levels 1 and 2. New York, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973.

Advanced

Subtests	1939 ISRT		1973 ISRT	
	No. of Test Items	Time	No. of Test Items	Time
Word Meaning	70	7 min	50	15 min
Paragraph Comprehension	36	9 min	50	26 min

Only minor differences exist in the format of the test items in the two editions at each level. The difference in time allocation, however, is major. This difference could reflect a systematic bias favoring the 1944-1945 students who were experienced in taking tests that put a premium upon speed. By contrast, the 1976 students were used to tests that were liberally timed and could well have been frustrated by the tight timing of the 1939 test.

Reaction of 1976 teachers to the tests. The 1976 survey questioned teachers 1) as to how well the various subtests of the 1943 or 1939 ISRT covered their instructional objectives and 2) as to how difficult they thought the subtests were for the average student in their class. The results from these survey

questions neither validate nor deny our supposition that the test may have been a built-in bias favoring the earlier subjects.

As can be seen by examining Table 18, the majority of the sixth-grade teachers who responded to the question on coverage judged the coverage of their instructional objectives by the 1943 tests to be adequate or better. The lowest rated tests in terms of coverage were Directed Reading, Sentence Meaning, and Alphabetizing. However even these tests had overall ratings of "adequate" to "quite good."

The 1976 teachers were also asked to list important instructional objectives that were not covered by this test. Teachers had to write their responses rather than just to respond to check items on a list. There were not a great number of responses. Those areas which were listed most often include

- Using reference materials
- Using study skills
- Sequencing events
- Reading charts and graphs
- Word recognition skills

The first two items on this list were mentioned most often; the last three items were mentioned by only a couple of teachers.

Table 18

Responses of Indiana Sixth-Grade Teachers in 1976 as to How Well the Coverage of 1943 ISRT-Elementary Relates to Their Objectives For Areas Covered on the Test

Coverage	Comprehension	Directed Reading	Word Meaning	Paragraph Comprehension	Sentence Meaning	Alphabetizing	Use of Index
Very Good	40 (18%)	40 (17%)	53 (23%)	56 (24%)	47 (20%)	79 (34%)	79 (34%)
Quite Good	98 (44%)	77 (33%)	88 (38%)	86 (37%)	73 (32%)	71 (30%)	80 (34%)
Adequate	70 (31%)	77 (33%)	73 (31%)	81 (35%)	78 (34%)	61 (26%)	56 (24%)
Rather Poor	11 (5%)	33 (14%)	12 (5%)	7 (3%)	22 (10%)	20 (9%)	12 (5%)
Very Poor	3 (1%)	7 (3%)	7 (3%)	2 (1%)	9 (4%)	2 (1%)	6 (3%)
Teachers Responding	222	234	233	232	229	233	233

Nor did the sixth grade teachers who administered the ISRT in 1976 rate the tests as too difficult for the average pupil in their classes. The results of this rating are presented in Table 19. The largest percentage rated the test's difficulty "about right," the second largest percentage rated the tests "somewhat too difficulty," and the third largest percentage rated the tests "considerably too difficult." Only a very small percentage of the teachers rated the tests "somewhat too easy" or "considerably too easy."

Table 19

Responses of Indiana Sixth-Grade Teachers in 1976 as to the Difficulty of the 1943 ISRT-Elementary for the Average Students in Their Classes

Difficulty	Comprehension	Directed Reading	Word Meaning	Paragraph Comprehension	Sentence Meaning	Alphabetizing	Index
Considerably Too Difficult	15 (7%)	39 (17%)	25 (11%)	18 (8%)	15 (7%)	18 (8%)	14 (6%)
Somewhat Too Difficult	92 (41%)	100 (44%)	77 (33%)	71 (31%)	64 (28%)	45 (20%)	41 (18%)
Difficulty About Right	116 (51%)	87 (38%)	117 (51%)	133 (58%)	137 (61%)	145 (63%)	149 (65%)
Somewhat Too Easy	2 (1%)	4 (2%)	9 (4%)	7 (3%)	8 (4%)	18 (8%)	22 (10%)
Considerably Too Easy	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	3 (1%)	2 (1%)
Teachers Responding	226	231	230	230	226	229	228

A review of Table 20 shows that a majority of the tenth-grade teachers who responded judged the tests' coverage of their instructional objectives to be adequate or better. About one teacher out of six did not respond to this item. One of four teachers judged the poetry test as "rather poor" or "poor." Several commented that the test is not representative of poetry studied today, that it is obscure, and that the time allocation is unrealistic. One of nine teachers judged the sentence meaning test as "rather poor" or "poor." The "nature" of the test and the time limitation for students to take the test were points of teacher criticism.

The questionnaire provided the teachers an opportunity to list instructional objectives of their programs not covered by the test. Only two teachers mentioned objectives not covered: "written summaries" and "basic fiction material-story line coverage." These teachers commented that they did not have a specific reading program. It appears that while teachers were critical of the content of test items and the severe time limitations of the tests, they judged the 1943 test to provide adequate coverage of their programs.

Table 20

Responses of Indiana Tenth-Grade Teachers in 1976 as to How Well the Coverage of the 1939 ISRT-Advanced Relates to Their Objectives for Area Covered on the Test

Coverage	Comprehension	Directed Reading	Poetry	Word Meaning	Sentence Meaning	Paragraph Comprehension	Key Words	Index
Very Good	15 (17%)	11 (13%)	7 (8%)	21 (24%)	11 (13%)	16 (18%)	20 (22%)	22 (25%)
Quite Good	32 (36%)	28 (32%)	18 (20%)	27 (30%)	33 (38%)	30 (33%)	32 (36%)	26 (29%)
Adequate	34 (38%)	40 (45%)	37 (42%)	37 (42%)	32 (36%)	39 (43%)	29 (32%)	33 (37%)
Rather Poor	7 (8%)	8 (9%)	18 (20%)	4 (4%)	9 (10%)	5 (6%)	9 (10%)	8 (9%)
Very Poor	2 (2%)	1 (1%)	8 (9%)	0 (0%)	3 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Teachers Responding	90	88	88	89	88	90	90	89

Table 21

Responses of Indiana Tenth-Grade Teachers in 1976 as to the Difficulty of the 1939 ISRT-Advanced for the Average Pupil in the Class

Difficulty	Comprehension	Directed Reading	Poetry	Word Meaning	Sentence Meaning	Paragraph Comprehension	Key Words	Index
Considerably Too Difficult	6 (7%)	10 (11%)	40 (43%)	10 (11%)	6 (7%)		1 (1%)	5 (6%)
Somewhat Too Difficult	37 (41%)	27 (29%)	26 (28%)	27 (30%)	24 (27%)	13 (14%)	13 (14%)	13 (15%)
Difficulty About Right	42 (46%)	48 (52%)	18 (20%)	45 (50%)	53 (60%)		54 (59%)	51 (57%)
Somewhat Too Easy	5 (5%)	6 (7%)	4 (4%)	7 (8%)	6 (7%)		19 (21%)	13 (20%)
Considerably Too Easy	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	4 (4%)	1 (1%)	0 (0%)		4 (4%)	2 (2%)
Teachers Responding	91	92	92	90	89	91	91	89

A review of Table 21 reveals a marked difference in how the 1976 teachers perceived difficulty across the various subtests. Whereas 15 percent of the teachers judged the Key Word Test to be "somewhat" or "considerably too difficult," 71 percent judged the Poetry Test to be "somewhat" or "considerably too difficult." The percent of teachers judging the difficulty to be from "about right" to "considerably too easy" is:

Comprehension	52%	Sentence Meaning	67%
Directed Reading	60%	Paragraph Meaning	n.a.
Poetry	28%	Key Words	84%
Word Meaning	59%	Index	79%

Thirty-four teachers took the opportunity to comment about the difficulty of the tests on this question: seven said the time was too short; nine mentioned the poetry test--most arguing that the selection was inappropriate; nine considered the directions confusing or unclear; three said that the Sentence Meaning subtest was ambiguous, biased, or assumed a set of national values; and three judged terms and selections to be obsolete or outdated.

Conclusion 2: The Results of This Study Contradict Our National Alarm

It is difficult, in the light of the general national assumption that the reading abilities of our children are decreasing at an alarming rate, not to be both encouraged by and concerned because of the results of this study.

Obviously, it is encouraging to find that in a representative state-wide sample, children are reading better for their ages than they were 30 years ago. The concern generated by these results is that without adequate research in carefully controlled comparisons, Americans are assuming that the opposite of what these results show is true and are reacting with decisions that can have serious consequences for our children. Inappropriate interpretations of instruments designed to predict other competency (e.g., the SAT and ACT) and reliance on comparison studies that are not broad enough or adequately controlled are leading many communities to adopt minimum competency testing as a magic cure for whatever might be causing the supposed decline in reading performance. Meanwhile, the same ungrounded alarm leads to attacks on school programs that have been developed over the same time span for which this study shows the improvement in

student reading achievement. This criticism and the effects of minimum competency testing will reinforce each other as the latter leads to instruction geared to the tests and not to the needs of children.

Instead of reacting as many states have by installing minimum competency testing and narrowly conceived programs, we should continue to develop reading instruction that will enable our children to function effectively in contemporary society and continue to develop instruments that will measure the effectiveness of that instruction. In this way, testing would be used correctly to report the effectiveness of programs, rather than being misused to direct them.

Rather than "going back to the basics," we need to continue to attempt to meet one of the very basic needs of our citizens: the ability to use reading as a basic skill to succeed in contemporary society. The following conclusion answers to this charge. It recommends intensive research that gathers all the possible relevant data and searches for causal relationships between context factors and reading achievement.

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Conclusion 3: The Changing Societal Context Between 1944-1945 and 1976 May Have Contributed to Changes in Educational Context That Favor The 1976 Students

The societal and educational changes sketched in Part IV (Context) of this report need expanding and detailing in research that clarifies any causal relationships 1) between the developing society in Indiana and the changes in its schools; 2) between the changes in the context of Indiana schools from 1944-1945 to 1976 and the test results of this study; and 3) between the life style changes in a more affluent and technically developed society and the learning opportunities and habits of its children.[15] Such research should consider numberous factors affecting education in the two periods including differences in curricula and teacher qualifications, a more detailed consideration of the possible impact of dropout data on differences in the tenth-grade samples from the two periods, and the impact of lifestyle changes--particularly television--on reading acquisition.

15. Blomenberg's study could achieve this, using the responses to the more extensive survey she conducted among the personnel in schools tested, the survey data from the 1944-1945 study, and other data available for the two periods.

A Larger, More Affluent Population Built Bigger, Better Equipped Schools

It seems probable, at this stage of the comparison, however, to hypothesize that the demographic and economic changes sketched in Part IV of this report led to changes in educational context that were significant for the two periods. Some of those changes resulted in differences that should have favored the 1976 students.

Demographic changes contributed. Population centers in Indiana grew as a result of a 50 percent increase in population, a 10 percent shift away from rural residence to urban and suburban residence and an accompanying shift in occupational endeavor from farming and common labor to service-type and more technical industrial jobs. This general development would in itself change the nature of school environment by creating the need for more classrooms in areas where the population become concentrated and less need for classrooms in the rural areas.

The need for urban schools was, at the same time, coupled to a general attitude that "bigger is better," which led to the building of new and bigger schools replacing smaller ones. The sixth grade surveys show that the 1976 school had two and one-half times as many sixth-grade classes in it as did the 1944-1945

school. The class size in the earlier school averaged around 20 children, while in 1976 it averaged about 27. This growth and consolidation was facilitated by numerous developments, such as more efficient transportation.

Economic changes contributed. Increased prosperity, which we have noted in a per capita income increase of nearly 100 percent, allowed the public the capital to build the schools and to build into them new facilities to teach the more specialized curricula that the public sensed its children should experience in order to get ready for survival and success in the increasingly technical world. And as this need for more specialized training materialized, it contributed to the development of bigger schools in consolidated systems that could provide the educational context for such training.

Educational Context Changes Deserve Intensive Study

It is generally believed the new educational experience for children--at once broader and more specialized--would benefit their performance on achievement measures, and it appears from this study that that is the case. It should be noted here, however, that when the achievement of children educated within the changed curricula is measured by an instrument designed to measure

the achievement of the curricula offered before the change, the results of the mismatch favors the earlier achievers. This point is a necessary limitation in the design of the study, however. Generally, it appears that the changes in educational context should have favored the 1976 students, but intensive research could indicate which factors had what kind of influence.

The research recommended on the educational context of Indiana schools in 1944-1945 and in 1976 would, it is hypothesized, describe how reading programs were changed and developed between these years in an effort to have them instruct to the real interests and needs of contemporary children.

The present study produced some data that indicate how relevant additional study of the educational context may be. Together, the sixth-grade surveys from the 1944-1945 and 1976 studies reveal that the concern for reading skills as basic needs of children led through the years to a greater educational investment in reading instruction. During a school year that was an average .8 of a month longer in 1976 than in 1944, half again as much daily and weekly instructional time was given to reading by 1976.

The sixth grade surveys showed that in 1976, reading was taught both as a subject in itself and in combination with other

subjects in twice as many schools as taught it both ways in 1944-1945. Other than producing this one comparison on instruction in the two periods, this study has not attempted to depict the changes in reading instruction in Indiana that could have affected achievement. Such an historical analysis could be important to the interpretation of the test results.

It is generally understood, too, that teacher certification changes since 1944 may have guaranteed teachers better prepared to teach reading, and a close analysis of the changes in teacher training effected by certification changes appears to be a project that, coupled to statistics revealing teacher experience, could indicate if teacher qualification may have played a role in the test results.

The question of retention as it relates to the age differences in the samples from the two periods is an important one. Research seeking data on school entry age, percentage of retentions, and any other factors that might explain the age difference could help establish how much of the extra age average for the 1944-1945 samples also represents years of school experience.

Finally, an intensive analysis of dropout data should attempt to prove or disprove the possibility that an abilities

curve of the 1944-1945 tenth-grade sample would demonstrate that an unusually high percentage of its low achievers had dropped out of school between their freshman and sophomore years.

A General Analysis of Life Style Changes Could Help Focus on the Possible Impact of Phenomena Such as Television

The general impact of more prosperity is evident in society's life styles. Since 1945, for example, America has been united from coast to coast by multi-laned superhighways. With a higher income, one can afford the car and other expenses to travel, as well as gadgets, appliances, and toys to compete with reading. And just as these experiences can both compete for our time and can be educational, so we are unsure about the exact balance between how they discourage or encourage reading.

Very few Indiana children had ever seen television in the mid 1940's, but by 1976 it was a focal point of a majority of Hoosier homes. Television has had a tremendous impact on life styles and values. This is especially true for children. Had anyone told the teachers and parents of the post-World War II period that their grandchildren would be sitting in front of that electric box from 20 to 50 hours a week, they might have predicted the total demise of reading as an activity. Since

effective reading instruction is structured on a child's interests and needs, it is obvious that television can contribute to developing the background and interests necessary for meaningful reading experiences, but generally it is accepted that the net effect of television on the reading habits of our children (as well as of adults) is negative. How much of what type of TV viewing is helpful or harmful is a subject of such potential import that it needs researching on an intensive scale.

Perhaps the increased prosperity of 1976 compared to 1944-1945 ought to operate to the overall advantage of the later sample in reading achievement comparisons. To mention an obvious and relevant advantage--attractive books, magazines, and other reading material abounded on a myriad of topics in 1976; in the war years printing was not rationed but was limited by national priorities. And readers had more money in 1976 than in 1944-1945 to buy reading material.

In this study, the impact of such societal and educational factors was only hypothetically assumed. The partial data presented indicate that there were differences in the two periods from which students were tested and that these differences might account for differences in the test results. When examined in relation to a critical review of the measurement instrument selected for this

study, however, the contextual data available, suggest an advantage for the 1944-1945 students that stemmed from the decision to retest with the 1943 and 1939 editions of the ISRT.

Careful Comparison Can Reveal The Route to Higher Achievement

The national concern over the reading performance of children has created the need for studies that compare large samples of students from broad geographic areas over long periods of time. This study has attempted to make such a comparison, and since its results contradict the national pessimism, more such studies are recommended.

Comparison Studies Have Their Limitations

Other ready data, such as the 1944-1945 Indiana test data, should be matched; and perhaps some of that data will include information that 1) will eliminate some of the limitations of this study and 2) will allow for more interpretation in the light of comparable context. Ideally, some of any available data may be the result of a measurement instrument that can be duplicated without too much concern for it biasing the study.

All of these hopes reflect on the limitations of this study:

. Descriptive data on the 1944-1945 subjects was limited,

thus limiting comparison to any such data that could have been collected on the 1976 students.

- The age differences noted in this study are based on U.S. Census data for Indiana. If it were possible to ascertain the actual ages of subjects in a comparison study, the indication of this phenomenon could be confirmed.
- There is no way to know if the 1976 sample may have been more "test-wise" than their earlier counterparts.
- The reports of the 1944-1945 study were available for the groups only and by classifications of the subjects that were much more relevant in the 1940's than in the 1970's. The actual test papers of the earlier students were not available for reanalysis.
- Explanation of the procedures and analysis used in 1944-1945 are limited.
- There was little control over the administration of the tests, and its adequacy and evenness between the periods can only be assumed.

- The 1976 sample could not be matched to the actual schools used in 1944-1945, and the stratification had to approximate a match on the 1944-1945 sample that was assumed representative because it tested 25 percent of the universe.
- The need to use the earlier editions of the ISRT saddled this study with the limitations of the test itself as a measure of both populations.

While almost all of these limitations are potentially inherent to a comparison study of this scope, they must be remembered in assessing the study's results. Even considering them, the results are certainly more valid than reliance on inappropriate data or studies that do not actually measure reading skills.

This Study Indicates We Have Been Headed in the Right Direction

The indication from testing large samples of Indiana sixth and tenth graders with the same test used over 30 years ago is clearly that their reading ability has improved, not decreased. Does this mean that today's schools are doing an adequate job of teaching reading? The answer appears to be "yes" in the sense that the average student in Indiana is developing the basic skills of reading. But in the sense that higher levels of performance are

possible, the answer is "no."

Present emphasis on basic skills may be misplaced and may be a factor explaining the recent drop in many test scores. The concern for and emphasis on basic skills has resulted in a rash of exercises and games being used to provide practice in isolated skills to the detriment of exercising the total act of reading. If basic skills of reading could be defined in terms of the reading process and practice time spent in actually reading, higher levels of performance could be achieved. The proper relationship between practice on isolated skills and practice with the total process has long been an issue in American education. Thorstein Veblin (1918), made the point well:

> *The underlying...presumption...appears to be that learning is a...commodity to be produced on a piece-rate plan, rated..., measured, and counted and reduced to staple equivalents by impersonal, mechanical tests. In all its bearing the work is hereby reduced to a mechanistic, statistical consistency, with numerical standards and units, which conduces to perfunctory and mediocre work throughout, and acts to deter both students and teachers from a free pursuit of knowledge.*

Whatever the role of isolated skills as "basics" in reading, the data in this study neither indicates that today's students acquire them to a weaker degree nor that increased emphasis of them will raise scores. A careful analysis of the educational context

should reveal why the 1976 sample scored about equal to the 1944-1945 sample at a considerably younger age--why in an age comparison they outscored their earlier counterparts markedly. Most educators would have similar hypotheses why that was so; they would wager that the answer has a great deal to do with giving more time to teaching reading as a real-life activity that both stems from and builds interests, concepts, and values.

Misusing test data to attack the development that has emphasized education and made it more meaningful may sustain what appears to be the dismal myth that children today aren't taught to read; it may force further misuse of tests in minimal competency testing and accelerate the swing "back to basics." But it will not help us to continue to improve education so that our children can achieve higher levels of performance. What may help do that is careful research that tells us which of the change factors between 1944 and 1976 were most responsible for the performance differences found in this study.

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